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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

W. W. HUNTER, C.I.E., LL.D.,

DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF STATISTICS TO THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VOLUME VIII.

RANGOON TO TAPPAL.

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THE INDIAN EMPIRE
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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA
Scale 265 miles – to 1 inch
100 50 0 100 200 300 400
REFERENCES
British Territory colored Pink
Dependent & Subordinate Native States Yellow
Independent States Green
Railways opened
Do not opened
Roads
The numerals denote the height above sea level in feet.
This Map is intended only to exhibit the principal places, chief rivers &c. in India.
THIBET
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
RAJPUTANA
CENTRAL PROVINCES
NIZAM'S DOMINIONS
MYSORE
ARABIAN SEA
Tropic of Cancer
BAY OF BENGAL
INDIAN OCEAN
Mouths of the Ganges
Gulf of Cutch
Gulf of Martaban
Gulf of Manaar
Palk Strait
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Laccadive Islands
Maldive Islands
Nicobar Islands
Mergui Archipelago
Cape Comorin
Cape Negrais
CALCUTTA
MADRAS
DELHI
HERAT
KANDAHAR
LHASA
Masulipatam
Pondicherri
Bangalore
Mangalore
Cannanore
Jabalpur
Jalna
Goa
Gaya
Colombo
Kandy

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

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VOLUME VIII.

Rangoon (*Ran-kún*).—A British District in the Pegu Division, British Burma; occupying the seaboard from the mouth of the Tsit-toung (Sittang) river westwards to the To or China Bakir, a branch of the Irawadi; situated between 16° and 17° N. lat., and between 95° and 96° E. long. Area, 5691 square miles; pop. (1872), 431,069 persons. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Henzada and Tharawadi, on the east by Shwe-gyeng, and on the west by Thún-khwa. On the first formation of Rangoon District it included Bhaw-ní, a strip of country extending along the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yoma Hills from the Bhaw-ní-ga-le stream to Toung-ngú. In 1864, Bhaw-ní was added to Toung-ngú, and in 1866, transferred to Shwe-gyeng. Smaller circles have also been transferred from the District, or added to it, from time to time. The headquarters of the District are at RANGOON CITY.

Physical Aspects.—Rangoon District consists of a vast plain extending along the sea-coast, and gradually rising towards the north, where it is broken about the centre by the lower slopes of the Pegu Yomas. South of the Pegu river, in the greater portion of the Hlaing valley, and for some distance above Rangoon city, the country is intersected by numerous tidal creeks, many of which are navigable by large boats. The chief of these are—the BHAW-LAY, with its branch, the Pa-kwon, communicating with the Irawadi, and practicable during the rains for river steamers; the PAN-HLAING, which leaves the Irawadi at Gnyoung-dún and joins the Hlaing a few miles above Rangoon city, forming in the rains the usual route of river steamers from Rangoon; the Tha-khwot-peng (popularly 'BASSEIN CREEK'), which connects the Rangoon river with the To or China Bakir, and is navigable at all seasons, river steamers using it in the dry season when the Pan-hlaing is closed.

The Pegu Yomas attain their highest elevation, viz. 2000 feet, in the

extreme north of Rangoon District, and, a few miles lower down, divide into two main branches with many subsidiary spurs. The western branch, which has a general south-south-west direction, separates the valleys of the Hlaing and Pú-zwon-doung rivers. After rising into the irregularly shaped limestone hill called Toung-gnyo, a little south of lat. 17° N., and forming the laterite hills round the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda, and beyond the Pegu river, it merges into the alluvial plains of the delta, being last traceable in the rocks in the Hmaw-won stream. The eastern branch of the Pegu Yomas has a south-south-east direction, and finally disappears south of the Pegu river. The slopes of the main range are, as a rule, steep, and the valleys sharply excavated.

The principal river in the District is the HLAING, which rises near Prome as the Zay, and, entering Rangoon in about lat. 17° 30′ N., flows south-south-east, falling into the sea, in about lat. 16° 30′ N., under the name of the Rangoon river. It is navigable at all seasons by the largest sea-going vessels as far as Rangoon city. Its chief tributaries are the Uk-kan, Ma-ga-rí, Hmaw-bhí, and Lien-gún. On the west, the Bhaw-lay, Pan-hlaing, and other tidal creeks connect it with the Irawadi. The PU-ZWON-DOUNG rises in the southern spurs of the Pegu Yomas, and falls into the Pegu river at the city of Rangoon, after a south-easterly course of 53 miles through a valley rich in valuable timber, and well cultivated towards the south. The PEGU RIVER rises in the eastern slopes of the main range, and falls into the Rangoon river at Rangoon city; it is navigable during the rains by river steamers up to Pegu, and the tide is felt for some miles above that town. It is connected with the Tsit-toung by a canal with locks.

The principal trees found in the District are the mangrove, largely used for fuel; *pyeng-ma* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ); *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus alatus); *eng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus); *pyeng-ka-do* (Xylia dolabriformis), etc. There are two small teak 'reserves'—one on the western slopes of the Yomas, in the valley of the Ma-ga-rí, and another on the right bank of the Pegu river, near its source.

History.—Local legends, said to be confirmed by Telugu and Tamil traditions, state that in some unknown century before Christ, the inhabitants of Telingána or Northern Madras colonized the coast of Burma, finding there a Mún (Moon) population, by which designation the Peguans still call themselves, whilst Telingána appears in the modern word Talaing. The Palm-leaf Records assert that the Shwe-Dagon pagoda was founded by two brothers, who had met and conversed with Gautama Buddha in India. But the first notice of the country that can be considered as historical, is given in the Singhalese *Mahanwanso*, which mentions the mission of Sono and Uttaro, sent by the third Buddhist Council (244 B.C.) to Suvarna-bhúmí ('Aurea Regio') to spread the Buddhist faith. It seems clear that the delta of the Irawadi did not

escape from the contest between the followers of the Bráhmanical and Buddhist faiths, which lasted for hundreds of years, until about the end of the 8th century the victory eventually passed to the one body in India, and to the other in Burma. One of the results of these religious differences was the foundation of the city of Pegu in 573 A.D. by Tha-ma-la and Wí-ma-la, sons of the King of Tha-htún by a mother of Nága descent, who were excluded from the throne of their father. Tha-ma-la was anointed King, and would seem to have extended his dominions considerably to the eastward, as he is said to have built Martaban. He was succeeded by his brother Wí-ma-la, who founded Tsit-toung, and during whose reign the country was unsuccessfully invaded (in 590 A.D.) by the King of Bij-ja-na-ga-ran. Thirteen kings are said to follow between this period and 746 A.D.; and by the latter time the kingdom included the whole country of Rama-gnya, from the Arakan Mountains on the west to the Salwín river on the east, including the former capital, Tha-htún, which had much declined in importance. Even at this time, Buddhism was not generally accepted in the country; and the tenth king of Pegu, Pún-na-rí-ka (Bráhman heart), and more especially his son and successor, Tek-tha, appear to have at least inclined towards Hindu traditions. With the death of Tek-tha ended the third dynasty of Pegu, for the succession had been more than once disturbed by usurpers. The length of time during which these three dynasties occupied the throne is doubtful, and it is by no means clear when Tek-tha died. A gap now occurs, owing to the unwillingness of Talaing historians to disclose the religious revolutions in their country during the 9th and 10th centuries, and its conquest by A-naw-ra-hta, King of Pagan in 1050. After this date, it remained subject to the Burmese for two centuries. The gradual disintegration of the Burmese kingdom, the capture of its capital by the Chinese army of the Mongol Emperor, Kublai Khán (1283-84 A.D.), and the flight of the king to Bassein, were taken advantage of by the Talaings, who rose in rebellion. A man named Wa-rí-yú killed the Burmese Governor of Martaban, and made himself master of that town and the surrounding country. A-kham-won, who had headed a rising in Pegu, now leagued himself with Wa-rí-yú, and their united army defeated the forces of the King of Burma, and pursued them as far as Pa-doung, a few miles below Prome. The Talaings then retired to Pegu; but disputes ensued, which ended in the death of A-kham-won or Ta-ra-bya, and in his rival being declared ruler of the entire country. Shortly after this, Wa-rí-yú was killed by two sons of A-kham-won, and was succeeded in 1306 by his brother, who only reigned four years.

From 1385 to 1421, Raza-dhie-rit was on the throne. He repelled a formidable invasion of the Burmese, and in 1388 regained possession of Martaban and the country to the eastward, which had been lost in a

previous reign. The history of Rangoon District during this period is nothing but a series of internecine struggles and wars with the Burmese. It was probably during the reign of Raza-dhie-rit that the country was first visited by Europeans. Nicholas Conti was in Pegu, 'a very populous city, the circumference of which is 12 miles,' in 1430. Antonio Correa made a treaty at Martaban in 1519 with Bya-gnya-ran, the tenth monarch after Raza-dhie-rit; and from this time onwards, there was considerable intercourse between European soldiers of fortune and the kings of Pegu, who sought their aid. For the local history of Rangoon town, see the next article.

In the 16th century (*circa* 1538), Pegu was conquered by Ta-beng-shwe-htí, King of Toung-ngú, and thus ended the dynasty founded by Wa-rí-yú. Ta-beng-shwe-htí took Martaban, and, returning to Pegu, was crowned king; and to mark his assumption of that rank, placed new 'umbrellas' on the Shwe-hmaw-daw and Shwe-Dagon pagodas. Later on, he gained possession of the country as far as Lower Pagan; in 1549, he defeated the Siamese army, and forced the King of Siam to pay tribute. But in 1550, Ta-beng-shwe-htí was assassinated by the Governor of Tsit-toung, who proclaimed himself king. After some disturbance, Bhúreng Noung, the heir-apparent, obtained his rights. He took Toung-ngú, and in 1554 declared war against Burma, and in March 1555 captured Ava. His dominions extended from Tenasserim to Arakan, and from the sea-coast northwards to the Shan States. Bhúreng Noung died suddenly in 1581. He was more than a great warrior; he enlarged his capital and strengthened its walls, and in the neighbourhood he founded another town of which the massive remains still exist. He was observant of religious rites, and obtained from one of the kings of Ceylon a relic of Gautama, which he enshrined in a pagoda. Bhúreng Noung also abolished the annual sacrifices to the *Nat* or spirits. He was succeeded by his son Nanda Bhúreng, to whom all neighbouring rulers did homage, with the exception of the Burmese monarch, against whom Nanda Bhúreng advanced up the Irawadi in 1584-85, and forced him to escape into China. Meanwhile, the King of Siam revolted; and four expeditions, all equally unsuccessful, were despatched against him in 1585, 1587, 1590, and 1593. These failures seem to have embittered Nanda Bhúreng, and to have rendered him wantonly cruel. The Talaing Buddhist monks especially incurred his enmity, and numbers were put to death or forced to flee the country. The delta became depopulated, and utter anarchy ensued. The Arakanese seized Syriam; in 1599, Pegu was taken, and Nanda Bhúreng sent captive to Toung-ngú. The kingdom was for a while left without a ruler. In 1600, Philip de Brito, then in the service of the Arakanese sovereign, was commanded to hold Syriam. He, however, proved faithless, and sided with the Portuguese

viceroy at Goa. Being accepted by the Talaing inhabitants, he declared himself master of Pegu, of which he took possession in the name of the King of Portugal. He erected a fort and church at Syriam, and laid out a new city. The forces of the kings of Toung-ngú and Arakan were routed, and the commander made prisoner. Philip de Brito now entered into treaties with his former enemy, the King of Toung-ngú, and also with the ruler of Martaban; but having treacherously attacked the former, was himself captured by the King of Burma in 1612, and impaled. The Portuguese power in Pegu was thus finally destroyed. Pegu remained subject to Burma till 1740 A.D.; and it was during this period that the English commenced trading with Rangoon. In 1695, application was made for permission to establish a factory at Syriam; and from 1709 to 1743, English traders were settled there. But the Burmese Government, owing partly to invasions from the north, and partly to internal dissensions, was falling to pieces; and in 1740, the Peguans rose in open rebellion. Syriam was twice seized, and in 1743, in consequence of English aid being refused, our factories were burnt down. Ava was in the hands of the Peguans for a short time; but in 1753, Moung-oung-zaya, *Myo-thú-gyí* of Mút-tsho-bo, regained the capital, and proclaimed himself king under the title of Aloung-bhúra (or Alompra), thus founding the dynasty now reigning. Within four years he had conquered Pegu, Tavoy, and Mergui, and had advanced into Siam. The British sided with neither party; but, unfortunately, some of our officers were suspected by Aloung-bhúra of having favoured the Peguans. In 1824, the first Anglo-Burmese war broke out, and a British force entered the river, and took Rangoon. At the close of the campaign, the British restored Pegu to the King of Burma, but retained possession of Arakan and Tenasserim. Disputes on matters of trade led to the renewal of war in 1852, when Rangoon and Pegu were captured after severe fighting, and the lower portions of the Irawadi and Tsit-toung rivers annexed to the British dominions.

Population.—The continual wars between the Burmese, the Peguans, and the Siamese, together with internal dissensions, almost depopulated the once flourishing Talaing kingdom, of which this District formed part. Nanda Bhúreng, who reigned over Pegu and Ava from 1581 to 1599, by his cruelties forced numbers to abandon the country, and the delta became utterly deserted. The Burmese, after the conquest in 1757, set themselves steadily to extirpate the Talaing language; and after the first Burmese war, they drove thousands into the neighbouring British Provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim. In 1855, the total number of inhabitants was returned at 137,130; in 1872, at 431,069, inclusive of 98,745, the population of Rangoon city. Classified according to race, there were in 1872—Burmese, 349,712; Hindus, 16,218;

Muhammadans, 10,126; Talaings, 12,394; Karengs, 27,830; Shans, 6396; Arakanese, 302; Chinese, 3718; Europeans, Eurasians, and Americans, 2384; 'others,' 1989. Classified according to sex, there were, exclusive of Rangoon city—males, 176,404; females, 155,920; total, 332,324. The percentage of males in the total population was 53·08, being higher than in any other District of British Burma, except Akyab. Classified according to age, there were in 1872, under 12 years—males, 63,821; females, 56,071: above 12—males, 112,583; females, 99,849. The number of Talaings seems small, but it is probable that many shown in the returns as Burmese are really pure Talaings, and still more of mixed Burmese and Talaing blood. The Karengs belong to the Pwo and Sgaw families, and are industrious agriculturists. Many have been converted to Christianity, and the remainder profess Buddhism. The Shans are immigrants from the north, and are settled in colonies. In the Than-lyeng township are several villages occupied by the descendants of captives brought from Zeng-mai by Aloung-bhúra after his invasion of that country, about 125 years ago. The number of male agriculturists over 20 years was 41,180, or rather more than one-third of the whole male adult population. The chief towns are—RANGOON, the modern capital, situated on the river of the same name, with a population in 1872 of 98,745; PEGU, situated on the Pegu river, and once the capital of a flourishing kingdom, but now merely a large village, with 4948 inhabitants; TWAN-TE, once an important place, but now an insignificant hamlet; SYRIAM or THAN-LYENG, on the eastern bank of the Pegu river, opposite Rangoon, the scene of the capture of De Brito by the King of Burma, in 1612. Of towns and villages there were in 1872—1080 with less than 200 inhabitants; 68 with from 500 to 1000; 8 with from 1000 to 2000; 1 with from 5000 to 10,000, and 1 (Rangoon) with more than 50,000.

Antiquities.—The principal pagodas in the District are—the Shwe-Dagon, the Bo-ta-htoung, and the Tsú-lai, in Rangoon; the Kyaik-houk at Syriam; the Shwe-hmaw-daw at Pegu; and the Tshan-daw at Twan-te. The SHWE-DAGON is the most celebrated object of worship in all the Indo-Chinese countries, as enshrining several hairs of Gautama Buddha. The SHWE-HMAW-DAW is the great pagoda of the Talaings. Both are fully described under separate articles. Meng-ga-la-dún, Hmaw-bhí, Hlaing, and Htán-bhú are sites of ancient towns.

Agriculture.—The District is said to have once been highly cultivated; but the continual wars with the Siamese on the one hand, and with the Burmese on the other, the cruel persecutions by Nanda Bhúreng at the end of the 16th century, and the measures adopted by the Burmese conquerors, depopulated the land. The British annexation gave a new stimulus, and the area under rice (the exportation of which had been prohibited some time before the second Anglo-Burmese war)

commenced at once to increase. The richest rice tract is in the Angyí township, which lies west of the Rangoon river and south of the Pan-hlaing, and in the lower portions of the valley of the Pegu river. In some places, the out-turn is 80 baskets of rice, or 1 ton 3 cwts., per acre; and in others, as much as 112 baskets, or 1 ton 12 cwts. Towards the north, the soil becomes much poorer, and in parts even 33 baskets, or 966 lbs., are considered a good yield. The country to the south and south-east is annually covered with so much water that cultivation can only be carried on in patches. Considerable damage was caused in former times by the leasing out of tidal streams as fisheries, the lessees having erected weirs and embankments which caused the channels to silt up, and thus become unable to carry off the rainfall. This leasing is now prohibited. The embankments in this District along the Irawadi and other rivers have not as yet been very effectual, and at times disastrous floods occur. In 1876-77, the total area under rice was 669,313 acres; of garden land, 19,208; under miscellaneous crops (on which revenue was payable), 3718. The gardens and orchards are found principally near Rangoon. Mangoes, jacks, plantains, and *ma-yan* (a kind of acid plum) are grown in abundance. At Twan-te is a small grove of Sapodilla plum-trees, producing the royal fruit of the Talaings. In 1868, a pair of buffaloes or plough bullocks cost £10; by 1877-78, the price had doubled. The average holding of an agriculturist is larger in Rangoon than anywhere else in the Province; in 1852, it was found to be about 10 acres, and in 1872, according to the Census, 11·47 acres. The latest returns state the average to be 19 acres. In 1877, there were 54 revenue-free holdings, covering an area of 66,160 acres. Every owner of upwards of 8 acres hires labourers, who are paid by the season, and live with the farmer. The engagement includes ploughing, sowing, reaping, thrashing, and garnering, and the rate of payment per harvest is usually 150 baskets (2 tons 3 cwts. 14 lbs.) of rice, worth from £10 to £15, according to market prices. Coolies are now engaged in gangs, varying in number from 20 to 100, and are paid from £5 to £8 for an area yielding about 1000 baskets of rice. In the neighbourhood of Rangoon city, the rate rises as high as £15. The hirer has to supply the labourers with rice, oil, and tamarinds. The annual expenditure of a family of six persons owning 10 acres of land has been calculated at £48. Such a holding will produce rice to the value of about £60, and the profit should thus be about £12.

Natural Calamities.—West of the Hlaing river, from the north to a little south of the Pan-hlaing, and especially in the Aing-ka-loung and Bhaw-lay circles, the country is liable to inundation. The embankments along the west bank of the Irawadi and Nga-won, which protect large areas of good land in the Henzada, Thún-khwa, and Bassein Districts, cause the floods—which formerly spread west and east—to

flow eastward to a far greater extent than before. The flood water enters by the numerous creeks connecting the Irawadi with the Hlaing, and, passing down the Pan-hlaing, forces back the Hlaing, causing much mischief. In 1876-77, the crops were ruined over no less than 171,000 acres, entailing much suffering on the people, serious remissions of land revenue, and an extensive emigration. Again, in 1877-78, 65,339 acres of rice land were irretrievably damaged by inundation.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles manufactured in Rangoon District are salt, pottery, *nga-pí* or fish-paste, mats, and silk and cotton cloth. The pottery and fish-paste alone are exported. Salt is made during the hot weather at various places along the sea-coast, and in the Syriam and An-gyí townships, partly by solar evaporation and partly by boiling in iron or earthen pots. The boiling season lasts for about two months, and the average out-turn from each pot may be taken at 250 *viss*, or about 8 cwts., which would sell for £1, 16s. or £1, 18s. The quantity manufactured is decreasing year by year, owing to the cheapness of the imported English salt. Pots for salt-boiling are made at Kwon-khyan-gún, and in the adjoining village of Taw-pa-lwai in the An-gyí township. The price per hundred varies from £4, 10s. to £9. A party of four good workmen will turn out from 100 to 125 pots per diem. The cost of 100 baskets of sand is 16s.; of earth, 5s. The mixer gets 2s. a day; the wheel-turner, fashioner, and finisher, each get 6s. per 100 pots. The expenditure during a season for manufacturing 1250 pots is estimated at £50, and the net profit at £25. Ordinary cooking pots cost from 12s. to 16s. per 100 in the cold season, and 10s. in the rains. A water-pot costs 3d. in Rangoon city. At Twan-te are made large water or oil vessels, glazed outside with a mixture of galena and rice-water, and commonly known as 'Pegu jars.' *Nga-pí* and coarse mats, used for ships' holds, are made chiefly in An-gyí. Silk-worms are reared in the Hlaing township, and silk and cotton cloth are woven in almost every house. The trade of the District centres in RANGOON CITY. Communication is carried on mainly by the numerous tidal creeks of the District. The total length of water-way is 505 miles. A new canal has recently been cut from Kha-ra-tshu on the Paing-kyún creek to Myit-kyo on the Tsit-toung. The principal roads are one from Rangoon city towards Prome, now taken up by the Irawadi Valley State Railway; the Rangoon and Toung-ngú road from Htouk-kyan to Pegu, crossing the Pegu river by a wooden bridge, and proceeding northwards along the eastern foot of the Pegu Yomas. The Rangoon and Irawadi Valley State Railway runs nearly due north for 60½ miles to the Mí-neng river, with stations at Tha-maing (about to be removed to Pouk-taw, near Engt-sien), Hlaw-ga, Hmaw-bhí, Taik-gyí, and Uk-kan. The line is single, with a gauge of 3·281833 feet.

The only institution in the District is the Rangoon Literary Society,

with 143 members on the 31st of March 1878. There are eight printing presses in the city of Rangoon, at which six newspapers and five other periodicals are published. The mails are carried daily by railway from Rangoon northwards, and once a week by mail-cart from Rangoon *viâ* Htouk-kyan to Pegu. There are also postal lines from the capital to Kyouk-tan, Twan-te, and Taw-la-tai on the Hlaing river.

Revenue.—No records exist showing the exact revenue raised in the District before British annexation. The amounts were fixed in *viss* (3·65 lbs.) of Rwek-ní silver, each of which is equivalent to about £13. The total sum paid by the people under Burmese rule has been estimated at about £114,560. In 1853-54, the net revenue was £54,509; in 1855-56, £96,040. The gross revenue in 1877-78, excluding sea customs, but including the imperial revenue of Rangoon city and the income derived from local funds (exclusive of Rangoon town), was £323,251. The imperial revenue of Rangoon city in 1877-78 was £73,582. The land, capitation tax, fisheries, and sea customs yield the largest portion of the income. The fisheries are leased out for a term of five years, and only *bona fide* fishermen living near can bid. Under Burmese rule, Rangoon District consisted of several townships, each under an officer, and the whole was controlled by a governor with the power of life and death, who was in direct communication with the Government at Ava. When the British took possession of the country, the local jurisdictions were to a great extent retained; a Deputy Commissioner was placed in charge of the District, and a *myo-úk* appointed to each township with limited judicial, fiscal, and police powers, with *thúgyís* in charge of circles, and *goungs* under them in charge of villages. Since then little alteration has been made in the general principles of administration, with four exceptions—(1) the formation in 1861-62 of a regular police; (2) a few years later, of an independent prison department; (3) later still, of an educational department; (4) and recently, the almost entire separation of Rangoon city from the District. Rangoon District now comprises 3 Subdivisions, each containing 2 townships. The number of revenue circles is 53. There are 10 courts in the District, presided over by officers exercising civil, criminal, and revenue powers. The Deputy Commissioner, as District judge, hears all civil appeals. No village is more than 44 miles from any court, and the average distance is 26 miles. Gang-robberies, which were very frequent for several years after the annexation, are now of rare occurrence. The police force consists of a superintendent, with 46 subordinate officers and 503 men; total, 550. The total cost in 1877 was £12,304. The central prison is situated in Rangoon city. Schools were opened many years ago by both Roman Catholic and Baptist missionaries; but for long they were confined to the city, the education of the rural classes being left

entirely in the hands of the Buddhist monks. In 1867, there were 54 village mission schools aided by Government, chiefly for Karengs. In 1873, a cess school was established in Pegu. Rangoon city contains a high school, St. John's College, and a diocesan school.

Climate.—The climate is generally depressing, though December and January are cool bracing months, with little rain. The rains last from about the beginning of May till the middle of November, and are usually accompanied by considerable electrical disturbance. The average annual rainfall is returned at 98·24 inches. Fever, rheumatism, and pulmonary complaints are prevalent. The dispensary and hospital are situated in Rangoon city.

Rangoon.—The capital of the Province of British Burma, and administrative headquarters of Rangoon District, is situated in lat. 16° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 96° 13′ 15″ E., on the left bank of the Hlaing river, at its junction with the Pegu and Pú-zwon-doung streams, 21 miles from the sea. According to Talaing tradition, the first village on the site of the modern Rangoon was founded about 585 B.C. by two brothers, Pú and Ta-paw, who had received some of Gautama's hairs from Buddha himself, and, acting on his instructions, enshrined them in the famous SHWE-DAGON pagoda. Pún-na-rí-ka, who reigned in Pegu from 746 to 761 A.D., is said to have re-founded the town, and called it Aramana. Afterwards, it regained its name of Dagon. The Talaing records relate how it was occupied by the Burmese in 1413; how Bya-gnya-keng, the son of Razá-dhie-rit, was appointed its governor; and how Sheng-tsaw-bú, his sister, in whose memory a national festival is celebrated every year, built herself a palace here in 1460. The town gradually sank into a collection of huts. Dala, now an unimportant suburb on the right bank of the Hlaing, and Syriam, on the opposite side of the Pegu river, are repeatedly noticed; but of Dagon little or nothing is said. Gaspar Balbi, who came to Pegu in 1579-80, thus wrote of Dagon: 'After we were landed, we began to goe on the right hand in a large street about 50 paces broad, in which we saw wooden houses gilded and adorned with delicate gardens after their custom, wherein their Talapoins, which are their Friers, dwell and look to the Pagod or Varella of Dogon. The left side is furnished with portals and shops, . . . and by this street they go the Varella for a good mile straight forward, either under paint houses or in the open street, which is free to walk in.' The English, Portuguese, Dutch, and French, had factories at Than-lyeng, better known as Syriam, on the other side of the river; and the officers in charge communicated with the Talaing court at Pegu through the governor of Dagon, who was eventually promoted to the highest rank in the kingdom, in order to suppress the quarrels between the European factors, each of whom strove to oust the rest for the benefit of his own

nation. In the wars between the sovereigns of Burma and Pegu, Dagon frequently changed hands; and when, in 1763, Aloung-bhúra, or Alompra, drove out the Talaing garrison of Ava (then the Burmese capital), and eventually conquered the Talaing dominions, he came down to Dagon, and repaired the great pagoda. Aloung-bhúra for the most part rebuilt the town, gave it the name of Ran-kún (lit. 'the end of the war') or Rangoon, which it has ever since borne, and made it the seat of a viceroyalty. Rangoon, however, remained little more than a group of hovels, just above the level of low tides. Until 1790, it was the scene of incessant struggles between the Burmese and Peguans. In that year the place was captured by the latter, but the rising was speedily quelled by Meng-tara-gyí or Bho-daw Bhúra, the Burmese monarch. The more general aspects of the native history of Rangoon have been dealt with under RANGOON District.

About this period, the English obtained leave to establish a factory in Rangoon, and the British colours were hoisted over it. In 1794, differences arose in Arakan and Chittagong between the East India Company and the Burmese Government, and Colonel Symes was sent on an embassy to Ava, one of the results of his mission being the appointment of a British Resident at Rangoon in 1798. Symes thus described Rangoon as he saw it: 'It stretches along the bank of the river about a mile, and is not more than a third of a mile in breadth. The city or *myo* is a square, surrounded by a high stockade, and on the north side it is further strengthened by an indifferent fosse, across which a wooden bridge is thrown; in this face there are two gates, in each of the others only one. On the south side, towards the river, . . . there are a number of huts and three wharves, with cranes for landing goods. A battery of 12 cannon, six and nine pounders, raised on the bank, commands the river, but the guns and carriages are in such a wretched condition that they could do but little execution. . . . The streets of the town are narrow, and much inferior to those of Pegu, but clean and well paved; there are numerous channels to carry off the rain, over which strong planks are placed to prevent an interruption to intercourse. The houses are raised on posts from the ground. . . . All the officers of Government, the most opulent merchants, and persons of consideration live within the fort; shipwrights and people of inferior rank inhabit the suburbs. . . . Swine are suffered to roam about the town at large; . . . they are servants of the public, common scavengers. . . . The Burmese are also fond of dogs, numbers of which infest the streets.'

During the first Anglo-Burmese war (1825), Rangoon was taken by the British and held till 1827; it was evacuated in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Yandabú (Yendaboo). In 1840, the appearance of Rangoon was described as suggestive of meanness and

poverty, quite dispelling the interest excited by the narratives of travellers. In 1841, King Kún-boung-meng, better known as Prince Tharawadi, ordered the town and stockade to be removed about a mile and a quarter inland to the site of Uk-ka-la-bha, and to be called by that name. The royal order was to a certain extent obeyed; the principal buildings and Government offices were placed in the new town, and were there when the British force landed at and captured Rangoon in April 1852, on the outbreak of the second Anglo-Burmese war. From this time, the place has remained in possession of the English. Within six months, steps were taken for laying out regular streets, for raising the general level, and for keeping out the river. The work of improvement has gone on steadily, and the Rangoon of to-day has practically been created since 1852. A raised strand road runs along the southern reach of the Hlaing, and the space between it and the old ditch is divided into square blocks by broad and regular streets. To the north is the military cantonment, and within its limits stands the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda, the terraced hill from which it rises being now fortified. A little to the east of this edifice is the 'Great Royal Lake,' a fine sheet of water, with a carriage-road all round. The Rangoon and Irawadi State Railway has a station in the centre of the city, which is divided into 11 quarters. The main portion, or Rangoon Proper, contains the public buildings, the principal of which are the law courts, town hall, telegraph office, Bank of Bengal, Roman Catholic and Anglican churches, custom-house, etc. The point of junction of the Pú-zwon-doung and Hlaing rivers in the east, known as Monkey Point, is crowned by a battery; along the bank of the former stream are the chief rice-husking steam mills, and on the Hlaing are numerous saw-mills. The other buildings of note in Rangoon are—the lunatic asylum; the jail, which is the main central prison for the Province, and contained 1835 prisoners in 1877; the hospital and charitable dispensary, east of the Agri-Horticultural Society's Gardens, with the Phayre Museum; the high school; St. John's College; the Diocesan school; the Theological College for Karengs, etc. In 1878, the garrison consisted of two batteries of artillery, one battalion of European and one of Native infantry, with a detail of Sappers, all belonging to the Madras army. The judicial work of the town is entrusted to a Recorder and subordinate magistrates. In certain cases, such as confirming sentences of death, the Recorder and the Judicial Commissioner of the Province, who otherwise has no jurisdiction in Rangoon, sit together as the 'special court.' The police in 1877 numbered 244 officers and men. The revenue of Rangoon, which is a municipality, was, in 1877-78, £73,582. The municipal committee have erected fine markets, supplied the town with good water from the 'Royal Lakes,' and lighted the streets with

kerosene lamps. The strand bank, with its wharves and moorings, is under the management of a special body.

In 1795, the population of Rangoon was estimated at 25,000; in 1812, at 8250. In 1852, the number of inhabitants was returned at about the same as in 1795. Long previous to 1795, Rangoon was the asylum of insolvent debtors and of foreigners of desperate fortunes, and apart from these, was inhabited by persons of almost every nationality. The Census of 1872 returned the population at 89,897, inclusive of the shipping and travellers. Burmese numbered 56,918; Hindus, 15,261; Talaings, 7451; Europeans and Eurasians (including Americans and Australians), 4016; Chinese, 3181; Shans, 1217; Karengs, 525; and 'others,' 1328, including Muhammadans of different nationalities, Armenians, Arakanese, Kathays, Malays, Jews, Parsís, and Siamese. In 1878, the population was estimated to have increased to 110,700, dwelling in 13,389 houses.

Trade.—When Arakan and Tenasserim were ceded to the English after the first war, the commerce of Pegu found an outlet at Maulmain, and rapidly raised that town to a large commercial port. But when Pegu was annexed in 1853, trade began to advance with gigantic strides. Not only was the whole customs system changed, and numerous restrictions removed, but the country in the interior was gradually developed. Rangoon now ranks as the fourth, if not the third, port in India. In early days, the largest business was done with Calcutta, owing to the great demand in that market for teak, and the facility with which the Burmese were thence supplied with British and Indian piece-goods. No direct trade existed between Burma or Pegu and any European country. The nature of the land on the banks of the river, the accessibility of the town from the sea, the great rise and fall of the tide, the low rates of wages, and, as it seemed, the inexhaustible supply of teak timber gave Rangoon great advantages for shipbuilding. The European principles of construction appear to have come from the French. No information regarding vessels constructed before 1786 is available, but in that year two vessels, one of 680 tons, were launched. For some time before the commencement of hostilities this industry was checked, and when war actually broke out it ceased entirely, but was resumed soon after the signing of the treaty of Yandabú (1826), until war was again declared in 1852. During this interval 24 vessels, with a total tonnage of 5625, were built. The total number of vessels that cleared out annually from Rangoon to all ports for many years prior to 1811 was from 18 to 25; from 1811 to 1817, 36; from 1817 to 1822, 46; and from 1822 to 1825, 56. In 1822, it was calculated that the maximum tonnage likely to find employment between Calcutta and Rangoon was 5400. In the three years 1820-21 to 1822-23, 22 vessels, aggregating 9404

tons, entered the port of Calcutta from Rangoon, and 5 vessels, aggregating 630 tons, the port of Madras. Under Burmese rule, the port charges were always high; and up to 1813 the dues and presents for the principal officials claimed from all masters, without distinction, amounted to £126. The cost of clearing was about £175. In 1813, certain changes were effected; in 1820, the demands for a ship of 420 tons amounted to £196. A new ship built in the river was exempt from charges on her first voyage. Commanders on landing had to go first to the custom-house to be searched, then to the port officer, after this to the place for delivery of the manifest of all cargo, fire-arms, ammunition, etc., then to the governor, and lastly to the Re-won. Up to a few years before 1824-25, all square-rigged vessels were obliged to unship their rudders and land their guns, etc.; ultimately, they were relieved from this humiliation on paying a sum of £4 to the local authorities. At this period, the duty charged on all imports was 12 per cent.; on all exports (except timber), 5 per cent.; and on timber, 1 per cent. Ships' stores paid half-duty. The exportation of rice and precious metals was strictly prohibited, and it was only by adroit smuggling that the latter were carried away. In 1805, exclusive of treasure, the imports were valued at £24,523; the exports, at £65,360. In 1821, the total value of the imports, also exclusive of treasure, into Rangoon was £9544; of the exports, £19,744. The chief imports from Calcutta were piece-goods, raw silk, cotton, indigo, saltpetre, sugar, rice, pepper, and opium. From 1826 to 1852, the average annual number of arrivals and departures was — English vessels from 100 to 1000 tons, 20; Chulia vessels (or those owned and navigated by natives) from 200 to 600 tons, 25; coasting schooners bound westward, 60; Chinese junks and small boats, 20; total, 125. A royal present of one piece of cambric, one piece of Palampur, and a Pulicat handkerchief was made by the master of each ship arriving. The port charges had been reduced, and varied, according to the tonnage of the ship, from £1 to £50. These went into the coffers of the local government, while the anchorage dues were assigned to one of the queens. The amount remitted annually to the capital on account of custom dues was about £21,000.

After British annexation, in 1858-59, the imports amounted to £1,274,374, and the exports, £856,681; total, £2,131,055. By 1868-69, the value of imports had risen to £2,346,460, and of exports to £1,954,055; total, £4,300,515. In 1877-78, the imports rose still further to £3,777,724, and the exports to £4,414,301; total, £8,192,025. In this year, the chief imports were cotton twist, yarn, and piece-goods, jute manufactures, provisions, silk goods, spices, tobacco, coals, machinery, metals, apparel, salt, seeds, and woollen goods. The principal exports were rice, timber, raw cotton, hides and

horns, gums and resins, mineral oil, stone (jade), lac, ivory, precious stones, and drugs. In 1877-78, the total value of customs duties levied on exports and imports was £291,773; the gross tonnage of vessels entering the port was 559,051; of vessels clearing out, 540,904; total, 1,099,955 tons.

The price of unhusked rice or paddy in the Rangoon market in 1819 was about R. 1, or 2s., for 10 baskets (bushels). In 1855-56, it was three times, and that of husked rice twice, what it was just before the annexation. Since 1855-56, the increase in the supply, great as it has been, has not kept pace with the demand, and prices have again doubled. The rice season commences about January and ends in May. The prices of rice in the husk at the mills in Rangoon in 1878 were, per 100 baskets—in January, Rs. 93, or £9, 6s.; in April, Rs. 130, or £13; in July, Rs. 124, or £12, 8s.; and in October, Rs. 125, or £12, 10s. Each firm has one or more brokers and several buyers, the former as a rule residing on the mill premises. At the beginning of the season, the firm advances money to the buyer, and takes a mortgage on his boat, the broker also standing as security. The buyer then purchases grain in the country as cheaply as he can, and sells it to the millowner at current rates, receiving cash payment. Towards the end of the season, the advances are gradually called in by the 'short payment' system—that is, the buyer is paid for a portion only of his cargo, the rest being taken as against the advance. Many of the cultivators, however, bring down the grain themselves, and sell it to brokers in the Pegu and Rangoon rivers, and the cargoes are delivered at the mills on the banks of the Pú-zwon-doung. The brokers are paid by a percentage on every basket. The rice is measured at the wharves, and then taken to the mills, where it is winnowed, carried to the top stores, passed between two stones which revolve at a distance just sufficient to grind off the outer husk. It is then re-winnowed (a blast carrying away the loosened husk) and shot into bags—all by steam machinery. Perfectly cleaned rice will not stand the long voyage to England, and the grain as exported has still on it an inner pellicle, and is mixed with about 20 per cent. of unhusked rice, known technically as 'cargo rice.' Since the opening of the Suez Canal, the quantity of cleaned rice exported to England has increased considerably. As competition is keen, and as each firm has only a limited extent of the river bank on which to discharge, a practice has sprung up of taking delivery in cargo boats in the Pegu river. This has led to the employment of steam launches for towing purposes; and, probably, before long small light-draught steamers will be used to go up the Pegu and meet the rice boats coming down.

Rangoon River.—The name usually given to the lower portion of the HLAING RIVER (*q.v.*), Pegu, British Burma.

Rangpur.—A British District, occupying the central portion of the Rájsháhi and Kuch Behar Division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. It lies between 25° 2′ 50″ and 26° 18′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 47′ and 89° 55′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Jalpáiguri District and Kuch Behar State; on the east by the Brahmaputra, separating it from Goálpára and Maimansinh; on the south by Bogra; and on the west by Dinájpur and Jalpáiguri. Area, 3476 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1872), 2,149,972. The administrative headquarters are at RANGPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District is one vast plain, without natural elevations of any kind. The rivers dominate over the topography of the country. Towards the east, the wide valley of the Brahmaputra is annually laid under water during the rainy season; and the remainder of the District is traversed by a network of streams, which frequently break through their sandy banks, and plough for themselves new channels over the fields. These river changes have left their traces in the numerous stagnant pools or marshes which dot the whole face of the country, but do not spread into wide expanses as in the lower delta. Under such circumstances, agricultural industry has taken full advantage of the natural fertility of the soil, which is composed of a sandy loam. Three-fourths of the total area are under continuous cultivation, the staple crops being rice, jute, oil-seeds and tobacco; and even the patches of waste land yield a valuable tribute of reeds and cane.

The river system is constituted by the BRAHMAPUTRA and its tributaries. The Brahmaputra itself only skirts the eastern frontier; but its mighty stream exercises a great influence over the District, by the fertilizing effect of its inundations, and also by its diluviating action. The chief tributaries are the TISTA, DHARLA, SANKOS, and Dudhkumar, of which the Tísta is by far the most important. This river, indeed, owing to the extreme variations which have occurred in its course, has more than once modified the entire hydrography of Northern Bengal. At the time of Major Rennell's Survey in the third quarter of the last century, the Tísta flowed due south and finally fell into the Ganges by what is now the channel of the ATRAI. But in 1787, a season of excessive rainfall caused the river to break away in a south-easterly direction, and discharge itself into the Brahmaputra. Old channels and offshoots of the Tísta abound throughout the District, the largest of which are known as the Karátoyá, Ghághát, Manás, and Gujáriá. These all afford valuable water communications during the rainy season. There are no embankments or artificial canals in the District, nor does the alluvial soil supply any mineral products.

History.—In the earliest days of which tradition preserves any record, Rangpur formed the western outpost of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. The capital was situated far away in the Assam

valley; but the great Rájá Bhagadattá, whose defeat is recorded in the *Mahábhárata*, had a country residence at Rangpur, locally interpreted to mean 'the abode of pleasure.' Apart from these legends, which are the common property of Hinduism, genuine local traditions have preserved the names of three dynasties that ruled over this tract of country prior to the 15th century A.D. The earliest of these is associated with Prithu Rájá, the extensive ruins of whose capital are still pointed out in the present District of Jalpáigurí. Next came a dynasty of four kings, whose family name of Pál recurs in other parts of Bengal and also in Assam. The founder, Dharmá Pál, has left the remains of a fortified city, which also lie within the limits of Jalpáigurí. Rájá Bhavá Chandra, the third of this Pál dynasty, and his minister, are the heroes of the Hindu nursery version of the wise men of Gotham, and are renowned far and wide throughout Bengal. The Rájá and his minister were bereft of common sense by the curse of the Rájá's favourite goddess, whom he offended by visiting her temple at a forbidden time. They did nothing like other people—slept by day, and kept awake throughout the night. The minister took up his abode in a box, and only emerged from his retreat when called upon by the Rájá to deliberate with him on some hard matter. One or two of these judgments may be noted. The Rájá and his minister, in the plenitude of their wisdom, sentenced the potters to compensate the merchants for loss by wreck, on the ground that the high mounds raised by the former brought the clouds which had caused the storm. On another occasion, the people brought a fine wild hog to them, that they might decide what strange animal it was; and, after deep cogitation on the knotty point, they concluded that it must either be an overgrown rat or an elephant gone into a consumption. But their last judgment gives the climax to their fame. Two travellers were discovered one afternoon digging a cooking-place in the ground by the side of a tank, for the preparation of their evening meal. The Rájá, who discovered them, at once concluded that the men were engaged in effecting a burglarious entry in order to steal the tank, and he sentenced them to be impaled as robbers. The poor travellers, driven to desperation, made each of them seemingly frantic endeavours to be impaled on the taller of the two poles; and when the Rájá inquired the reason of their extraordinary rivalry, they informed him that they had learned, by the power of their enchantments, that whoever was impaled on the taller pole would in the next birth become the sovereign of the whole world, while the other would be his minister. Bhavá Chandra, thinking that it would be far from consistent with justice that such low people should acquire supreme dignity, forthwith had himself impaled on the coveted pole, and his faithful minister followed his master, and expired on the shorter one. Bhavá Chandra's successor, Pála, was the last of the line.

The third dynasty had three kings, Niládwáj, Chakradwáj, and Nílámbhar. The first of these founded Kamátápur, the ruins of which, situated in Kuch Behar territory, are 19 miles in circumference. All these successive capitals were built upon the same principle — enclosure within enclosure, the royal palace occupying the centre of the whole. Rájá Nílámbhar is said to have been a very great monarch; but unfortunately he was brought into collision with the Afghán king of Gaur, who captured his capital by stratagem, and carried him away prisoner in an iron cage. This Afghán conqueror is identified with Husáin Sháh, who reigned from 1499 to 1520. But the Muhammadans did not retain their hold upon the country. A period of anarchy ensued; and among the wild tribes from the hills of Assam that overran Rangpur, the Koch came to the front and founded the dynasty which still exists at Kuch Behar. The first Rájá, Visu, was a conqueror who extended his arms eastwards up the Assam valley, and southwards over Rangpur. On his death, however, the kingdom was divided; and as soon as the Mughal Emperors had established their supremacy in Bengal, their viceroys began to push their north-eastern frontier across the Brahmaputra. By 1603, the Muhammadans were firmly established at Rángámáti in Goálpára, which continued to form their outpost against the incursions of the Ahams. Rangpur proper was not annexed till 1687 by the generals of Aurangzeb. In the extreme north, the Kuch Behar Rájás were able to offer such a resolute resistance, that in 1711 they obtained a favourable compromise, in accordance with which they paid tribute as *zamíndárs* for the *parganás* of Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág, but retained their independence in Kuch Behar proper.

This was the condition of things when the East India Company received possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765. At first, the British continued the Muhammadan practice of farming out the land revenue to contractors. But in 1783, the exactions of a notorious farmer, Rájá Debí Sinh of Dinájpur, drove the Rangpur cultivators into open rebellion; and the Government was induced to invite the *zamíndárs* to enter into direct engagements for the revenue. In 1772, the banditti, increased by disbanded troops from the native armies, and by peasants ruined in the famine of 1770, were plundering and burning villages 'in bodies of 50,000 men.' Rangpur was then a frontier District, bordering on Nepál, Bhután, Kuch Behar, and Assam. The enormous area of the jurisdiction, and the weakness of the administrative staff, prevented the Collector from preserving order in the remote corners of his District, which thus became the secure refuges of banditti. The early records of Rangpur and neighbouring parts of Bengal are full of complaints on this head, and of encounters between detachments of sepoys and armed bands of *dakáits* and *saniyásís*. A

small British force sent against them received a check; in 1773, Captain Thomas, the leader of another party, was cut off, and four battalions had to be employed. In the year 1789, the Collector conducted a regular campaign against these disturbers of the peace. They had fled to the great forest of Baikunthpur, within which he blockaded them with a force of 200 *barkandázs*. At last they were compelled to surrender; and within a single year no less than 549 robbers were brought to trial.

In recent times, Rangpur has had no history, beyond the mere recital of administrative changes. The entire tract east of the Brahmaputra has been formed into the independent District of Goálpára, and annexed to the Province of Assam. The three northern *parganás* now constitute part of the new District of Jalpáigurí; and a considerable portion in the south has been transferred to Bográ, over the whole of which District the Judge of Rangpur continues to exercise civil jurisdiction. Of the area of the present District, about 300 square miles, which pay revenue into the Rangpur treasury, are under the criminal supervision of the Magistrate of Maimansinh.

People.—In the beginning of the present century, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in the course of his statistical inquiries, arrived at a most elaborate estimate for the population of Rangpur. Making allowance for the reduced area of the District, his calculations show 1,268,000 Muhammadans, and 816,000 Hindus; total, 2,084,000 souls. These figures, both in the aggregate and in their classification, approximate marvellously to the results of the late Census; but it seems incredible that the population should have remained stationary during the long intervening period of prosperity. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 2,149,972 persons, residing in 4206 *mauzás* or villages and in 331,079 houses. The area was taken at 3476 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 619; villages per square mile, 1·21; houses per square mile, 95. The average number of persons per village was 511; of persons per house, 6·5. Classified according to sex, there were 1,095,026 males and 1,054,946 females; proportion of males, 50·83 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 391,424, and females, 304,506; total, 695,930, or 32·4 per cent. of the total population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is given as 548,997, as against 154,605 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people includes—28 Europeans; 12 Eurasians; 1 Armenian, and 1 Nepálí; 1109 aborigines; 492,149 semi-aboriginal tribes; 339,983 Hindus, subdivided according to caste; 25,171 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 1,291,465 Muhammadans. There can be no doubt that in Rangpur, as in the rest of Eastern Bengal, the great bulk

of the people are of aboriginal descent; and that the majority became willing converts to the conquering faith of Islám, in preference to remaining out-castes beyond the pale of exclusive Hinduism. This latter fact is attested by local tradition. The only circumstance that might excite surprise, is that the Musalmáns should have exercised so great a proselytizing influence during the brief hundred years of their rule in Rangpur. The tribes now ranked as aboriginal are very poorly represented; the most numerous being the Telangá, a wandering race of gipsies, who number only 671. The semi-Hinduized aborigines of the Census Report, who are considerably more numerous than the Hindus proper, mainly consist of the cognate tribes of Koch, Palí, and Rájbansí, whose home is in the adjoining State of Kuch Behar, and who are known to be still more largely represented in the general Muhammadan population. These three tribes number collectively 407,658 persons. Next come the Chandáls (36,148) and the Khyens (20,013). Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 10,623, mostly belonging to the two clans called Mithila and Kámrúpí Vaidik, whose settlement in Rangpur is known to have taken place in historic times. The Rájpúts number only 2404; the Káyasths 10,387, including apparently many Kolitás from Assam. By far the most numerous caste is that of the Tiors (fishermen), 141,213; next come the Kaibarttas, 35,396. Emigration from the District is unknown. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 857,298, or 39·9 per cent.; Musalmáns, 1,291,465, or 60 per cent. The remainder is made up of 73 Christians, including 32 native converts; 61 Buddhists, and 1075 'others.' Among the Hindus are included a few members of the Bráhma Samáj, who are to be found at Rangpur town and Kánkiná; and a yet smaller number of Jain merchants from the north-west, who have also settled in the civil station. The Vaishnavs are returned at 24,451; the Tantránáths, 420; the Saniyásís, 268. The Muhammadans almost entirely belong to the cultivating class, and engage little in trade. Of recent years, the reforming Faráizí spirit has manifested itself chiefly among the higher classes; but the Faráizís, or Shárás, as they are here called, do not display any active intolerance.

The entire population is absolutely rural. The only town returned in the Census Report as containing more than 5000 inhabitants is Rangpur itself, with 14,845; but the municipality of Rangpur includes three agricultural villages. The people display no tendency towards urban life, but rather the reverse. Out of a total of 4206 villages, as many as 3085 each contain fewer than 500 inhabitants.

Agriculture, etc.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands and usually transplanted, affords from 70 to 85 per cent.; the

remainder is furnished by the *áus* or autumn crop, which is generally grown on high lands. Elaborate agricultural statistics have recently been collected in Rangpur, through the agency of a native Deputy Collector. Out of a total area of 2,360,294 acres, he estimates that 1,737,950 acres, or 73 per cent., are actually under cultivation. Rice occupies 1,263,000 acres; fibres, 117,000; oil-seeds, 68,000; tobacco, 66,000; wheat, 31,000; inferior food grains, 44,000; vegetables, 15,000; indigo and sugar-cane, 11,000 acres each. Less than one-eighth of the total area is capable of producing two crops in the year. The staples grown for export are rice, jute, tobacco, and oil-seeds. Indigo cultivation is no longer conducted under European supervision, but native planters have taken over the deserted factories. Among miscellaneous crops may be mentioned *pán* or betel leaf, *supári* or betel-nut, and mulberry for silk-worms. Jute is grown in all parts of the District, but thrives best on the banks and islands of the larger rivers; the annual out-turn is more than 700,000 cwts. Tobacco is principally cultivated in the high-lying northern tracts; the leaf is bought up by Maghs from Chittagong, for the purpose of being manufactured in Burma. Manure, in the form of cow-dung or oil-cake, is applied only to the more valuable crops. It is also a common practice to burn stubble or jungle on the fields in order to renovate the soil. Land is occasionally permitted to lie fallow; and it is known that certain crops cannot be raised in two successive years. Artificial irrigation is nowhere required. Spare land, capable of cultivation, can hardly be said to exist. The average produce of an acre of good rice lands renting at 9s., is 15 cwts., valued at £1, 4s. Land yielding two crops, and renting at 18s., may produce as much as 9 cwts. of *áus* rice, together with a second crop of pulses, oil-seeds, or tobacco, the whole valued at from £2, 10s. to £6. The Deputy Collector above referred to has estimated the total annual out-turn of all the crops in Rangpur District as worth £4,000,000 sterling. The rate of rent paid for rice land varies from 1s. 4d. to 11s. an acre; land suited for tobacco or sugar-cane pays from 11s. to 14s.; and *pán* gardens as much as £2 or £3 an acre. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of the District, except the large degree to which the superior landlords have parted with their rights in favour of intermediate tenure-holders. Among such intermediate tenures may be mentioned the *upanchakí*, which was originally granted for charitable or religious purposes at a quit-rent, and the *mazkurí*. It is also noteworthy that the term *jotdár*, in this part of the country, is applied to a substantial middle-man, who holds for a term, but does not cultivate with his own hands. Very few of the actual cultivators have won for themselves rights of occupancy by a continuous holding of over twelve years; the majority are mere tenants-at-will.

Ordinary rates of wages have approximately doubled within the

past ten years. In 1871, an agricultural day-labourer received about 3d. a day; blacksmiths and carpenters, about 16s. a month. The prices of food grains do not seem to have risen in equal proportion. Common rice fetched 1s. 6d. per cwt. in 1786; 4s. in 1860; 5s. 5d. in 1870; and 4s. 2½d. in 1872. The highest price reached in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 12s. 6d. per cwt.

Rangpur is not specially liable to either of the calamities of flood or drought. It is common for the crops in certain tracts to be injured by the overflow of the rivers; but on only one occasion in history, in 1787-88, has the inundation been so excessive as to affect the general harvest of the District. In that memorable year, when the river Tísta was borne in a torrent across the arable fields, one-sixth of the population are estimated to have perished from want, disease, or drowning. In 1873, the insufficiency of local rainfall was such as to demand the institution of relief operations by Government. The completion of the railway has now saved the District from any danger of isolation. If the price of rice were to rise in January as high as 13s. 6d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc.—There are few special industries in Rangpur. Paper is manufactured from jute in certain villages. Other products are —*satránjís* or striped cotton carpets; silk cloth woven from the cocoon of a worm fed on the castor-oil plant; baskets and mats; brass-ware; ornaments carved in ivory and buffalo horn. Silk culture is confined to the south of the District, whence about 300 cwts. of cocoons and 50 cwts. of raw silk are annually exported.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. Agricultural produce is brought from the interior and stored in warehouses on the river banks until the rising of the streams in the rainy season. The chief exports are rice, jute, and tobacco; the imports are cotton cloth, salt, hardware, and miscellaneous goods. From the north are received timber, ponies, blankets, and *ghí*. The centres of trade are—Mahíganj, a suburb of the civil station; Gorámára and Kánkiná on the Tísta; Nisbetganj on the Ghághát; and Kálíganj, a stopping-place for steamers on the Brahmaputra. The registration returns of river traffic for 1876-77 show a total export from the District valued at £932,442, against imports valued at £480,046. It is probable that other imports pass by road unregistered, but there remains a considerable balance of trade in favour of the District. The chief exports were—jute, 1,155,000 *maunds*, valued at £346,560 (placing Rangpur second to Maimansinh in the list of jute-producing Districts); tobacco, 557,400 *maunds*, valued at £278,700; rice, 145,900 *maunds*, and paddy, 45,000 *maunds*, valued together at £37,392; hides, 93,000 in number, valued at £18,591. The imports comprised—European piece-goods, £162,970 (almost entirely received by steamer at Kálíganj); salt, 199,500 *maunds*, valued

at £99,750; raw cotton, 58,400 *maunds*, valued at £87,600 (chiefly received at Chilmári from Goálpára District and the Gáro Hills). The chief centre of registered trade was Gorámára, where the exports were valued at £163,932, chiefly jute (246,000 *maunds*) and tobacco (148,500 *maunds*); the imports were valued at £44,113, chiefly salt (54,900 *maunds*). Next in order came Kálídaha, with an export of 151,100 *maunds* of tobacco, and Játrápur with 123,000 *maunds* of jute.

The Northern Bengal State Railway, which has lately been opened, cuts through the western half of the District from south to north; and it is intended ultimately to construct a short branch to Rangpur town. In 1871, the total length of the District roads was returned at 240 miles, maintained at a cost of £1550; but many new roads and bridges have been constructed since that date. In the same year, there were 118 ferries, at which £2193 was collected in tolls.

Administration.—In 1875-76, the gross revenue of Rangpur District was returned at £144,159, towards which the land tax contributed £100,008, or 70 per cent.; the total cost of officials and police of all kinds amounted to £24,994, or little more than one-sixth of the revenue. At the time of the Permanent Settlement, when the area of the District was considerably larger than at present, the land revenue was fixed at £83,866. In 1870, there were 3 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, and 5 magisterial and 14 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, Rangpur is divided into 16 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 415 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £7771. In addition there was a municipal police of 59 men, and a rural police or village watch of 5268 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 5742 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0·60 square mile of the area or to every 374 persons in the population. The estimated total cost was £16,774, averaging £4, 16s. 6d. per square mile and 1⅞d. per head of the population. In the same year, the total number of persons in Rangpur District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1442, being 1 person to every 1490 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail at Rangpur town, and one Subdivisional lock-up. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 256, of whom only 1 was a female; the labouring convicts averaged 214. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 8382 of the population. The total cost amounted to £1256, or £4, 18s. per prisoner; there was no money profit realized from the jail manufactures. The death-rate was 35·9 per thousand, against 53·4 for Bengal generally; but, as a rule, the mortality in the Rangpur jail is deplorably high. In 1874, it rose to 176·8 per thousand.

Education has widely spread of recent years, owing to the changes

by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended, first to the vernacular middle-class schools, and finally to the village schools or *páthsálás*. In 1856, there were only 21 schools in the District, attended by 971 pupils. In 1870, these numbers had risen to 230 schools, and 5361 pupils; and by 1875, the schools had still further increased to 525, and the pupils to 11,090, showing 1 school for every 6·6 square miles, and 5 pupils for every thousand of the population. In 1872, the total expenditure on education was £5265, towards which Government contributed £3255. There were 3 higher-class English schools in the District, with a total of 260 pupils. The Normal school at Rangpur town was attended by 62 pupils.

The District is divided into 4 administrative Subdivisions and 16 police circles. There are 61 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 563 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there were 12 civil judges and 10 stipendiary magistrates; the maximum distance of any village from the nearest court was 25 miles, the average distance 10 miles. Rangpur town, with a population of 14,845 souls, is the only municipality in the District. According to the Census Report of 1872, the gross municipal income was £644, the average rate of taxation being 10⅝d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Rangpur does not differ materially from that common to all Lower Bengal. Diseases of a malarious origin are prevalent in the rainy season and winter, but during the remainder of the year the atmosphere is clear and dry. The average annual rainfall is 88·45 inches. In 1870, the mean annual temperature was returned at 81·5° F.

The endemic diseases include fever, cholera, and elephantiasis. The two former sometimes exhibit epidemic outbreaks of great severity. The fevers are lingering, being usually attended with spleen and liver complications. In the two years 1871 and 1872, the total number of deaths from cholera reported to the police was 2767; and there was only one month in the twenty-four entirely free. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate, during 1875, of 40·10 per thousand in the rural area, and 39·33 in the urban area, which is conterminous with the municipality of Rangpur. There were, in 1872, six charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 199 in-door and 18,459 out-door patients were treated during the year; the total expenditure was £745, towards which Government contributed £235.

Rangpur.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Rangpur District, Bengal; situated between 25° 18′ and 26° 18′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 47′ and 89° 33′ 45″ E. long. Area, 2687 square miles; villages, 2970; houses, 256,527. Pop. (1872), 1,718,226, of whom 994,320, or 57·8 per cent., are Muhammadans; 723,076, or 42·1 per cent., Hindus; 50 Buddhists; 71 Christians; 709 'others.' Proportion of males in

total population, 50·9 per cent.; average density of population, 639 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·11; persons per village, 579; houses per square mile, 95; persons per house, 6·7. This Subdivision comprises the 12 police circles (*thánás*) of Mahíganj, Nisbetganj, Darwání, Jaldháká, Dimlá, Phuranbárí, Barabárí, Nágeswarí, Alípur, Kumárganj, Malángá, and Pírganj. In 1870-71, it contained 12 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 337 men, and a rural constabulary of 4326 men.

Rangpur.—Administrative headquarters and principal civil station of Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Ghaghát river, in lat. 25° 44′ 55″ N., and long. 89° 17′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), 14,845, viz. 8060 Muhammadans, 6663 Hindus, 52 Christians, and 50 'others.' Rangpur is a municipality, and consists, besides the civil station, of the hamlets of Mahíganj, Dháp, and Nawábganj. Municipal revenue (1876), £1009; rate of taxation, 1s. 4½d. per head of population. The town contains the District jail and a dispensary. The name of Rangpur—'the abode of bliss'—is said to be derived from the legend that Rájá Bhagadattá, who took part in the war of the *Mahábhárata*, possessed a country residence here. Rangpur was captured by the Afghán king, Husáin Sháh, who ruled at Gaur from 1497 to 1521 A.D.—*See* RANGPUR DISTRICT.

Rangpur.—Ruins in Síbságar District, Assam, immediately south of Síbságar town, marking the site of the residence of the Aham kings during the 17th century. The palace and the neighbouring temple of Jáiságar are both said to have been built by Rájá Rudra Sinh about 1698. They are now buried in deep jungle; and the walls remain firm, though the roof has fallen in. Before Rangpur, GARHGAON, in the immediate neighbourhood, was the Aham capital; and after 1784, Rájá Gaurináth moved his residence from Rangpur to Jorhát.

Rangún (*Ran-kún*).—District and town in British Burma.—*See* RANGOON.

Ránia.—Town in Sírsa District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 28′ N., long. 74° 54′ E.; pop. (1868), 4583. Situated on the right bank of the river Ghagar, 13 miles west of Sírsa town. Chiefly noted as the seat of a branch of the Bhatti family of Hissár. Little trade; manufacture of leather-work and coarse cloth. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £135, or 6½d. per head of population (4918) within municipal limits.

Ránibennur.—Chief town of the Ránibennur Subdivision of Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated on the high road from Poona to Madras, *viâ* Sholápur and Hubli, about 80 miles south-east of Dhárwár town, in lat. 14° 37′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 40′ 20″ E. Pop. (1872), 11,623; municipal revenue, £326. Post office. A thriving town, noted for the excellence of its silk and cotton fabrics, and with a considerable trade in raw cotton.

Ránígam.—Petty State of Undsarviya, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £2556; tribute of £71 is payable to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Ráníganj.—Subdivision of Bardwán District, Bengal; situated between 23° 23′ and 23° 52′ 45″ N. lat., and between 86° 50′ 30″ and 87° 37′ E. long. Area, 671 square miles; villages, 678; houses, 48,069. Pop. (1872), 245,017, of whom 227,901, or 93 per cent., were Hindus; 12,131, or 5 per cent., Muhammadans; 528, or 0·2 per cent., Christians; and 4457, or 1·8 per cent., of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 49·4 per cent.; average density of population, 365 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·01; persons per village, 361; houses per square mile, 72; inmates per house, 5. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles of Ráníganj, Káksá, and Niámatpur. In 1870-71, it contained one court, a regular police force of 157, and a village police of 2524 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £5138, 14s.

Ráníganj.—Municipal town and headquarters of Ráníganj Subdivision, Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Dámodar river, in lat. 23° 36′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 8′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 19,578 (inclusive of several small villages within municipal limits), viz. 17,927 Hindus, 1473 Muhammadans, 178 Christians. Ráníganj itself contains only 6638 inhabitants. This town is the centre of the Ráníganj coal industry; and its prosperity dates from the discovery and working of the mines, and also from the time when it was made a station on the East Indian Railway, 121 miles from Howrah. It is now one of the principal seats of the District trade. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £932; rate of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head of population. Dispensary.

Ráníganj.—Coal-field in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 35′ to 23° 45′ N., long. 86° 40′ to 87° 15′ E.; area, about 500 square miles. Situated at a distance of from 120 to 160 miles north-west of Calcutta, and extending a few miles east of Ráníganj town to several miles west of the Barákhar river; the greatest length from east to west being about 39 miles, and the greatest breadth from north to south, 18 miles. The greater portion of the coal-bearing strata is enclosed between the Dámodar and the Ajai, the former river receiving the principal drainage. The surface is undulating, and the dense jungle which formerly covered it has now been cleared nearly throughout. The soil is generally clay, in some parts alluvial, but in others formed from the decomposition of rocks. South of Mangalpur, in the Singáran valley, are the mines of Harishpur and Bábusol, where the seam is 25 feet thick, with 16 feet of excellent quality. The coal of the Ráníganj field, like most Indian coals, is a non-coking bituminous coal,

composed of distinct laminæ of a bright jetty coal, and of a dull, earthy rock, with a large proportion of volatile matter and ash, the amount of the latter averaging about 15 per cent. (as against 2¾ per cent. in English coal), and ranging from 8 to 25 per cent. A sample of a very pure coal from the Siársol mine gave the following results:—Volatile, 40 per cent.; fixed carbon, 57·5 per cent.; ash, 2·5 per cent. Mr. Blandford, in his report on the geological survey, 1858-60, states that in the Rániganj bed nine seams (perhaps eleven), with an aggregate thickness of 120 feet, are worked in the eastern portion; in the western, eleven, with an aggregate thickness of about 100 feet; and in the Lower Dámodar section of the field, four seams, with an aggregate thickness of 69 feet. But more extensive underground explorations are necessary in order to fix the absolute thickness of the coal seams in this tract. The principal drawbacks to the extended employment of Rániganj coal in India, and the reasons why the expensive English coal is still generally employed, especially by sea-going steamers on long voyages, are the following:—1st. The non-coking property of Rániganj coal: 2nd. The small proportion of fixed carbon, upon which the value of coal for heating purposes depends: 3rd. The large proportion of ash; a larger quantity of Rániganj coal is therefore required to perform the same duty as good English coal: 4th. Its liability to spontaneous ignition, which is mainly due to the large quantity of iron pyrites in the coal; but this disadvantage may to a certain extent be avoided by shipping direct from the mine, without exposing the coal to any lengthened action of moisture. Dr. Oldham, in his report on 'The Coal Resources and Production of India' (1867), states that '*the very best coal of Indian fields only touches the average of English coal.*' Practical results also attest the inferiority of the former. The two most heavily-worked lines of railway in India, viz. the East Indian (Bengal) and the Great Indian Peninsula (Bombay), use respectively Indian and English coal; and their relative consumption is 150 tons per mile in the former, as compared with 75 tons in the latter. The price of Rániganj coal varies from £1, 2s. 3d. to to £1, 5s. 7d. a ton in Calcutta.

'The Rániganj coal-field is the largest and most important of the areas in which coal is worked in India. Its proximity to the main line of railway, and also to the port of Calcutta, tends to give it pre-eminence over other less favourably situated localities. In the year 1774, coal was known to occur there, and so long ago as 1777 was actually worked. In 1830, several collieries of considerable extent had been opened out, and were, we have reason to believe, in a flourishing condition. The total area of coal-bearing rocks which is exposed is about 500 square miles; but it is possible that the real area may be even double that, since on the east the rocks dip under and are completely concealed by

alluvium. Throughout this area a central zone includes the principal mines, and the chimneys which dot this tract constitute it the black country of India. At the present time (1879), there are about six principal European companies engaged in the extraction of coal, while many minor firms and native associations contribute to swell the total amount raised.

'Formerly a large proportion of the coal was obtained by open workings and quarries; but at the present day most of the seams which were accessible in this way have been exhausted, and regular mining is now carried on with more or less system. The miners are, however, individually, in some cases, allowed a degree of freedom, or rather licence, which would never be permitted in European mines. They chiefly belong to two races, the Bauris and the Santáls; the former using the pick, while the latter cannot be induced to work with any other tool than a crowbar, with which they produce an altogether disproportionate amount of small coal and dust. The pillar and stall is generally practised in preference to the long wall system of "getting" the coal. None of the mines are of great depth; and a perfect freedom from fire and choke-damp renders it possible to carry on the work without its being necessary to adopt the precautions which in England only too often fail to secure the object aimed at. Many of the seams are of considerable thickness; one which is worked contains nearly 40 feet of coal. As a rule, however, the thick seams, especially those in the lower measures, do not contain the best coal. Compared with ordinary English coal, the Ráníganj coals, and Indian coals generally, are very much inferior in working power; still they are capable of generating steam in both locomotive and other engines.'

The latest official return gives the average annual out-turn of 36 out of the 43 mines in the Bardwán District (Ráníganj coalfield), for the three years previous to 1878, at 475,587 tons; the out-put in 1878 being 523,008 tons. For 6 mines no returns were given, and no information was available.

Ráníganj.—Small municipal town in Purniah District, Bengal; on the river Kamlá, in lat. 25° 51′ 40″ N., and long. 87° 57′ 55″ E., 16 miles due west of Basantpur. Pop. (1872), 1498; inclusive of hamlets within the municipal limits, 6144. Municipal income (1876-77), £106; average incidence of taxation, 4⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits; municipal police, 12 men, besides 13 maintained for the protection of the surrounding country. Seat of trade in rice, indigo, jute, tobacco, etc. Ráníganj contains a primary school, attended by 50 boys.

Ránígat (or '*Queen's Rock*'), ancient fortress in Pesháwar District, Punjab, identified with the Aornos of Alexander's historians. In 1848, General Cunningham suggested that the 'vast hill fortress of Ránígat,

situated immediately below the small village of Nográm, about 16 miles north by west of Nográm, corresponded in all essential particulars with the description of Aornos, as given by Arrian, Strabo, and Diodorus, excepting in its elevation, the height of Ránigat not being more than 1000 feet, which is, however, a very great elevation for so large a fortress.' In 1854, General James Abbott suggested the Mahában hill as the true identification; and in 1863, Mr. Loewenthal brought forward the claims of Rájá Hodi's fort, opposite Attock, a site first suggested by General Court. After a full reconsideration of the whole case, General Cunningham has again urged the identification of Ránígat with Aornos. The 'Queen's Rock' is a huge upright block on the north edge of the fort, on which Rájá Vara's *rání* is said to have seated herself daily. The chief objection to the identification is the difference in height,—Ránígat being only about 1000 feet high, while the Aornus of Arrian was said to be 6674. For a complete statement of the case, see General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 58–78 (1871).

Ráníkhet.—Military sanatorium in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 39′ 50″ N., long. 79° 33′ E. Ráníkhet has of late grown into importance as a sanatorium for European troops. It has several advantages over the other Himálayan sanitaria, as regards level land for building purposes, and accessibility from the plains. Some years ago it was proposed to move the military headquarters of the Indian army from Simla to Ráníkhet, and barracks have been erected, or are in process of construction. If the water supply and other questions connected with the accommodation of Europeans are satisfactorily solved, Ráníkhet may yet become one of the most important of our Indian hill stations. Its elevation is sufficient to render it a most salubrious retreat from the plains.

Rání-núr ('*The Queen's Palace*').—Rock cave in Khandgiri Hill, Purí District, Orissa. One of the most modern of a series of cave-temples with which Khandgiri and the neighbouring hill of UDAYAGIRI are honeycombed. The earliest of these excavations exhibit what are believed to be the oldest memorials of Buddhism, and the first human dwellings yet discovered in India. The Rání-núr is the latest and most elaborate of these excavations, to which dates have been variously ascribed from 200 B.C. to 1000 A.D. It consists of two rows of cells, one above the other, shaded by pillared verandahs, with a court-yard cut out of the hillside. Two stalwart figures, in coats of mail down to the knees, stand forth from the wall as guards. One of them wears boots half-way up the knee; the other seems to have on greaves, the feet being naked, but the legs encased in armour. The court-yard opens towards the south, and is lined on the other three sides with rows of chambers. On the right and left appear to be the cooking-room and common dining-hall. The verandahs are commodious, and the rock brackets, which extend from

the pillars to support the intervening roof, are finely sculptured. The upper storey contains four large cells, each 14 feet long by 7 broad, and 3 feet 9 inches high. The verandah outside is about 60 feet long by 10 broad, and 7 in height. Each cell has two doors, and at either end is a lion, hewn out of the rock.

The upper verandah of the Queen's Palace is adorned with a sculptured biography of its founder. The first tableau, worn almost level with the rock, seems to represent the sending of presents, which preceded the matrimonial alliances of the ancient dynasties of India. A running figure stands dimly out, apparently carrying a tray of fruit. The second appears to be the arrival of the suitor. It delineates the meeting of the elephants, and a number of confused human forms, one of whom rides on a lion. From the third tableau the biography becomes more distinct. It represents the courtship. The prince is introduced by an old lady to the princess, who sits cross-legged on a high seat, with her eyes averted, and her arms round the neck of one of her maidens below. The fourth is the fight. The prince and princess, each armed with swords and oblong shields, engage in combat. The fifth is the abduction, depicting the princess defeated and carried off in the prince's arms, her sword lost, but her shield still grasped in her hand. The prince holds his sword drawn, and is amply clothed. The princess is scantily draped, and her hair knotted in a perpendicular chignon, rising from the top of her head, and a long tress falling over her bosom to her waist. She wears heavy anklets. The sixth is the hunt. A tree forms the centre of the piece, on one side of which the prince and princess are shooting at a bounding antelope; while a led horse stands near, and attendants armed with clubs. The prince draws his bow in the perpendicular fashion of English archers. It is about two-thirds his own height. A lady looks down upon the chase from the tree. A court scene follows, in which the prince sits on a throne on the left, with attendants holding fans on either side. Dancing girls and musicians are grouped in front, and the princess appears on a throne on the extreme right. The eighth and ninth tableaux are effaced. Three scenes of dalliance between the prince and the princess follow, and the series in the upper storey ends in a mysterious running figure with a snake twisted round him. The lower verandah exhibits the sequel. A convent scene discloses the princess retired from the vanities of life, sitting at her cell door in the upper storey of a sculptured monastery, with her ladies, also turned ascetics, sitting at separate doors in the lower one. The remaining tableaux, four in number, represent the prince, princess, and courtiers as hermits, with their hands on their breasts in an attitude of abstraction, freed from human passion, and wrapped in contemplation of the Deity. Throughout, the prince is generally fully dressed, with a cotton garment falling from his girdle,

but leaving the leg bare from the knee. The lady wears a head-dress something like the Prince of Wales' feathers, with her hair done up in a towering chignon. A scroll of birds and beasts and leaves runs the whole way along. The battle and hunting scenes are given with much spirit, the animals being very different from the conventional creatures of modern Hindu art. The sculptured legend of the princess is now much worn by climatic action, and its episodes are to a large extent conjectural.

Ránípet.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras; situated on the north bank of the Palár river, in lat. 12° 56′ N., and long. 79° 23′ 20″ E. Pop. (1872), 2838, inhabiting 911 houses. Ránípet comprises the European quarter of Arcot town, near the Arcot railway station. It is also the headquarters of the covenanted divisional officer, and was formerly a large cavalry station, now abandoned. The barracks, however, are in good preservation, and are occupied as a hospital, and as quarters for the families of sepoys on foreign service. The 'Nine Lákh Garden,' an extensive grove of mangoes, is near Ránípet. About 30 per cent. of the population are Musalmáns, consisting largely of sepoys and their families. The European and Eurasian residents number about 130.

Ránípur.—Town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Jhánsi and Nowgong (Naugáon) road, 5 miles west of Mau (Mhow), with which it forms a municipal union. Lat. 25° 14′ 40″ N., long. 79° 10′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 6695, consisting of 6323 Hindus and 372 Muhammadans. Considerable manufacture of *kharúa* cloth, dyed red with the root of the *ál* (Morinda citrifolia). The chief inhabitants are Jains, who compose the wealthy merchant class, and have a very handsome temple, with two high steeples and numerous cupolas. Fine *bázár*, with old and picturesque stone-built houses, and two small but pretty Jain shrines. Founded in 1678 by Rání Hira Deva, widow of Rájá Pahár Sinh of Orchha. Police station, post office. (For municipal statistics, see MAU.)

Ránípur.—Town in Khairpur State, Sind; situated on the main road from Haidarábád (Hyderábád) to Rohri, 45 miles south-west of Rohri, and 15 due west of Diji fort. Lat. 27° 17′ N., long. 68° 31′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 6310, chiefly Muhammadans. The place is said to derive its name from the circumstance of the Rání or queen of Jám Daria Khán, a prince who reigned at Tatta, in Lower Sind, having fled hither after her husband had been killed in battle. Ránípur was once the seat of a considerable manufacture of cotton cloth.

Ranjít, Great.—River of Bengal, which rises in Independent Sikkim and enters Dárjíling District from the west, forming part of the northern boundary. After a short course from west to east, it falls into the TISTA (lat. 27° 6′ N., long. 88° 29′ E.). Its affluents above the point of

junction are the Rangnu, the Chhota or Little Ranjít, and the Rammán. This river, although not navigable, being purely a mountain stream, is not fordable within Dárjíling at any time of the year. It has shelving banks, generally clothed with forest, but with patches of cultivation at intervals; the bed is stony and sandy.

Ranjít, Little.—River of Bengal, rising in the Singálilá range, on the borders of Sikkim and Nepál. It flows generally in a north-easterly direction, and falls into the GREAT RANJIT on its right bank. In the dry and cold months it is everywhere fordable. The principal tributaries of the Little Ranjít are the Káhel, the Hospital *Jhorá*, the Rilling, and the Serjang.

Ran-khyoung.—Revenue circle in the Mro-houng township of Akyab District, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2531; gross revenue, £709.

Ranpur.—Town in Ahmedábád District, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 22′ N., and long. 71° 45′ E. Pop. (1872), 5796. Post office.

Ranpur.—Native State of Orissa, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal; lying between lat. 19° 52′ 45″ and 20° 12′ N., and between long. 85° 9′ 15″ and 85° 29′ 15″ E. Area, 203 square miles. Bounded on the north, east, and south by Purí District; and on the west by Nayágarh State. The south-west part of Ranpur is a region of hills, forest-clad and almost entirely uninhabited, which wall in its whole western side, except at a single point where a pass leads into the adjoining State of Nayágarh. The only town is the Rájá's place of residence, situated in lat. 20° 3′ 55″ N., and long. 85° 23′ 26″ E., which consists of one long and wide street, containing about 600 houses. The country products are here bartered at markets twice a week for iron, cotton, blankets, cotton cloth, silk, wheat, and clarified butter, brought from Khandpára; and for fish from the Chilká Lake. Population (1872), 27,306, consisting of 24,995 Hindus, 148 Muhammadans, and 2163 'others,' principally aboriginal Kandhs; total number of villages, 280, of which only one contained as many as from 3000 to 4000 inhabitants. The revenue of the Rájá is estimated at £696; the tribute paid to the British Government is £140. The Rájá's militia consists of 8, and the police force of 94 men. Forty-one schools are scattered through Ranpur. Tradition affirms that this State was founded 3600 years ago by a hunter called Básara Básuk; its name is said to be derived from a giant Ranásur.

Ran-wa.—Revenue circle in the Mro-houng township of Akyab District, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2020; gross revenue, £989.

Ráoján.—Village and police station in the headquarters Subdivision of Chittagong District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 32′ N., long. 91° 57′ 50″ E.; pop. under 5000.

Rápri. — Village and ruins in Máinpuri District, North-Western

Provinces. Pop. (1872), 903. Lies among the wild ravines on the left bank of the Jumna, about 44 miles south-west of Máinpuri. Numerous remains of Hindu and Muhammadan times exist in the neighbourhood. Local tradition ascribes the foundation of the ancient city to Ráo Zoráwar Sinh, also known as Rápar Sen, whose descendant fell in battle against Muhammad Ghori in 1194 A.D. Mosques, tombs, wells, and reservoirs mark its former greatness; and several inscriptions found among the ruins have thrown much light upon the local history. The most important of these dates from the reign of Alá-ud-dín Khiljí.

Rápti.—River of Oudh and the North-Western Provinces. It rises among the outer Himálayan ranges of Nepál, in lat. 28° 19′ N., and long. 82° 53′ E., and flowing round a long spur of mountains, first southerly for 40 miles, and then north-westerly for 45 miles, enters British territory in Bahráich District, Oudh, in lat. 28° 3′ N., and long. 81° 55′ E. It then traverses the plains for 90 miles, passing through Bahráich and Gonda Districts, till it reaches the North-Western Provinces in Basti District. Thenceforth its course becomes extremely tortuous, winding at its will through the soft alluvial soil. Throughout, it possesses two channels, the older lying to the north and remaining dry except in the rainy season. It is also liable to frequent changes of its bed. Numerous lakes in Basti District communicate with the Rápti, the chief being the Tál Bakhira, Tál Pathra, and Chaur Tál. It then enters Gorakhpur District, flows beside the town of Gorakhpur, and finally joins the Gogra (Ghagra) in lat. 26° 15′ N., and long. 83° 42′ E., after a total course of 400 miles. The last 85 miles, below Gorakhpur, are navigable for large boats, and considerable quantities of grain and timber are sent down to the Ganges ports. In the rains, the stream has a breadth of a quarter of a mile, and flows at the rate of 5 miles an hour; but during the hot weather it shrinks to 150 yards, with a velocity of only 2 miles an hour. The current often cuts away large pieces of land and transfers them from one village to another. Its principal tributary is the Burhá Rápti, which joins it on its left bank in Gorakhpur District.

Rásan.—Village in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2707. Distant from Bánda town 29 miles south-east, from Kálinjar 7 miles north-east. Situated at the foot of an isolated hill, crowned by the ruins of an old fort. An ancient temple, probably of Chandel date, and now disused, stands in the centre of the enclosure. Mounds surround the village, pointed out by tradition as the remains of a large town called Rájbansi. Local legends affirm that about the 15th century Ballabh Deo Ju fought against the Delhi troops on this spot, and that the imperialists, being victorious, plundered and burnt the old town, which has remained in ruins ever since. One Rám Krishna then founded the present village of Rásan near the deserted town and

fort of Rájbansi, and his descendants are still *zamíndárs* in the village. Headquarters of a *pargana* under Akbar.

Rasandah.—*Tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the upland portion of the District, above the modern alluvial Gangetic valley. Area, 335 square miles, of which 217 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 187,766 souls; land revenue, £18,798; total Government revenue, £20,611; rental paid by cultivators, £41,297.

Rasauli.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated 4 miles east of the civil station of Nawábganj, on the Faizábád (Fyzábád) road. A Musalmán settlement of some antiquity. Pop. (1869), 3431, viz. Muhammadans, 1727, and Hindus, 1704.

Rásipur.—Town in Salem District, Madras; situated on the Salem-Námakal road, in lat. 11° 27′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 13′ 47″ E. Pop. (1871), 8006, residing in 1591 houses. The station of a sub-magistrate. Principal industries—silk-weaving, iron-smelting, and sugar-boiling.

Ras Muári (or *Cape Monze*, *Ras Movari*, *etc.*; called *Ras Jíl* by the Baluchís).—The frontier promontory between Sind and Baluchistán, at the south-eastern extremity of the estuary of the HAB RIVER. Lat. 24° 50′ N., long. 66° 43′ E. This headland, well known to mariners, forms the extreme southern offshoot of the hills which, under the name of Brahuik, Hála, etc., separate Sind from Baluchistán. Pottinger speaks of it as 'springing abruptly to a conspicuous height and grandeur out of the sea.' As a matter of fact, it rises as a gradually sloping bluff, with a low, rocky point, to a height of 1200 feet. The Hab river washes its eastern base; and on the Baluchí or western side of the Hab estuary, rise the Jebel Pabb Mountains, with peaks as high as 2500 feet. A rocky bank projects about 2½ miles into the sea from Cape Monze to the south and south-west, with from 3 to 5 fathoms of water. Cape Monze, with the Jebel Pabb on the Baluchí or western side of the river, form well-known landmarks for making Karáchi during the south-west monsoon. No vessel should, however, round Ras Muári in less than 15 fathoms, as there are shoals, not yet thoroughly surveyed, deposited by the silt brought down by the Hab and by the deltaic distributaries of the Indus.

Rasra. — Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 51′ 20″ N., long. 83° 53′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 7261, consisting of 4662 Hindus and 2599 Muhammadans. Distant from Gházípur town 28 miles north-east, from Ballia 22 miles north-west. Trade in spices, cloth, and sugar.

Rássa.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Noted as the residence of the descendants of the Mysore princes. Central prison for female convicts.

Rastam.—Village in Shikárpur District, Sind; 9 miles north-east of Shikárpur town. Contains a police station, travellers' bungalow, and

dharmsála. Pop. (1872), 1114, of whom 653 were Muhammadans and 461 Hindus. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture. Lat. 27° 58′ N., long. 68° 51′ 30″ E.

Rásúlábád.—Central western *tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the middle of the Doáb uplands. Lat. 26° 41′ 15″ N., long. 79° 49′ 15″ E.; area, 223 square miles, of which 108 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 98,505; land revenue, £19,155; total Government revenue, £21,091; rental paid by cultivators, £32,455; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 8¼d.

Rasúlábád.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 14 miles north of Unao town, in lat. 26° 50′ N., and long. 80° 30′ E. Pop. (1869), 3443, viz. Hindus, 2740, and Musalmáns, 703. Four mosques, 5 Hindu temples, 2 weekly markets. Has some reputation for goldsmiths' and jewellers' work.

Rásulpur.—River of Bengal, the only tributary of the Húglí within Midnapur District. It rises in the south-west of that District, under the name of the Bágdá, and flows eastwards and south-eastwards till it falls into the Húglí below Cowcolly lighthouse, a short distance above the embouchure of that river into the Bay of Bengal.

Rasúlpur.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated on the bank of the Gogra river, 4 miles from Tánda. Pop. (1869), 3691, viz. 2225 Hindus and 1466 Muhammadans, including 9 Shias.

Ratanmál.—One of the petty States in the Bhíl Agency, under the Central India Agency. The present Thákur, named Abai Sinh, was born about 1845. Estimated revenue (1875), £60. The State receives no allowances from, nor does it pay any tribute to, the British Government. The population is entirely Bhíl.

Ratanpur.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces, 12 miles north of Biláspur town; situated in lat. 22° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 82° 11′ E., in a hollow surrounded by the Kendá offshoots of the Vindhyán range. Ratanpur was the capital of the Haihai Bansí kings of Chhatísgarh. Since the death of Rájá Bimbájí Bhonslá, in 1787, the town has steadily decayed, though the crumbling arches of the old fort, the broken walls of the ancient palace, and the half-filled up moat which surrounded the city, recall its former grandeur. The population, 6910 in 1866, had by 1872 been reduced to 5111. Among them are many traders, who deal in lac, cloth, spices, and metals with Mírzápur, and also a large section of lettered Bráhmans, the hereditary holders of rent-free villages, who are the interpreters of the sacred writings, and the ministers of religious rites over a great portion of Chhatísgarh. The town covers 15 square miles, and contains within its limits a perfect forest of mango-trees, with numerous tanks and temples scattered amid their shade. Mixed up with the temples, great blocks of masonry of uniform shape commemorate distinguished *satis.* The most promi-

nent of these is near the old fort, where a large building, gracefully adorned on all sides with arches and minarets, records that there, two hundred and forty years ago, 20 Ránís of Rájá Lakshman Sahí devoutly fulfilled the duty of self-immolation.

Ratanpur Dhamanka. — One of the petty States of Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £585; tribute of £75 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £15 to the Náwab of Junágarh.

Ratesh.—Petty State in the Punjab, subordinate to Keunthál. Area, 3 square miles; estimated pop. 437; estimated revenue, £20. The chief is styled Thákur.

Ráth.—North-western *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level plain, lying along the rivers Dhásán and Betwá. Area, 381 square miles, of which 251 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 102,499; land revenue, £21,038; total Government revenue, £22,414; rental paid by cultivators, £34,864; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 8⅝d.

Ráth.—Ancient but decaying town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Ráth *tahsíl.* Lat. 25° 35′ 35″ N., long. 79° 36′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 14,515, consisting of 10,402 Hindus and 4113 Muhammadans. Probably derives its name from the Rahtor clan of Rájputs. Said to have been refounded in 1210 A.D. by Sharaf-ud-dín, who called it Sharafábád after himself. Formerly of considerable importance, but now declining through its remoteness from modern trade routes. Several mosques, temples, and tanks. Remains of ancient Chandel buildings south of the town. Ruins of two forts, built by the Rájás of Jaitpur and Charkhári during the last century. Mosque and well bear inscriptions of Aurangzeb's reign. Tomb of Bará Pír, west of town, built over a sacred brick brought from Bagdad from the shrine of Shaikh Abd-ul-Kádir Jiláni. Handsome *bázár.* Trade in grain, cotton, and molasses. Manufacture of country cloth, dyes, and saltpetre. *Tahsíli,* police station, post office, dispensary, school, two good *saráis.* During the Mutiny of 1857, the *tahsíldár* and the *kanúngo* were killed, but not by the people of Ráth, who bear an excellent character as orderly and well-disposed subjects. A municipality was established in 1867, but abolished two years later.

Ra-thai.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3117; gross revenue, £739.

Ra-thai-doung.—Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. The cultivated area is mainly on the banks of the Ma-yú river, which traverses the tract in a general northerly and southerly direction. Pop. (1876), 55,189; gross revenue, £18,112. Headquarters at Ra-thai-doung village; pop. 639.

Ra-thai-myo.—Ancient capital of the kingdom of Prome, British

Burma. Known also as Tha-re-khettra; about 8 miles west of Prome town, on the main road northwards to Mye-dai. The ruins of massive pagodas, and of an extensive embankment, mark the site, now overgrown with jungle, except where cleared for rice cultivation.

Ratiá.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab; distant from Hissár town 40 miles north-west. Pop. (1868), 2745. Now scarcely more than a Ját village, but bearing marks of former importance, like so many other places in the desolated tract once watered by the Ghaggar and Saraswati (Sarsuti). Originally held by Tuár Rájputs, then conquered by the Pathán invaders. Devastated by the great *Chalísa* famine in 1783-84, and colonized since British occupation by its present Ját inhabitants. Small trade in grain.

Ratlám.—Native State in the Western Málwá Agency, under the Central India Agency. Area, about 1200 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 100,000. The revenue from all sources was, in the same year, estimated at £130,000, of which more than half is alienated in *jágírs* and other grants. The Nímach State Railway connecting Indore with Nímach and Nasirábád (Nuseerabad) passes by Ratlám town.

The Rájá of Ratlám, who is descended from a younger branch of the Jodhpur family, ranks as the first Rájput chief in Western Málwá. One of his ancestors, Ratan Sinh, having displayed conspicuous courage in Delhi, received a grant of territory in Málwá from the Emperor Sháh Jahán. The State is held as tributary to Sindhia; but in 1819 an arrangement was made by which the Rájá of Ratlám agreed to pay an annual tribute of Salím Shahi Rs. 84,000 (or about £6600), while Sindhia engaged never to send any troops into the country or interfere with the internal administration. This tribute was assigned, by the treaty of 1844 between the British Government and Sindhia, in part payment of the Gwalior Contingent. It is now paid to the British Government. The present Rájá, Jaswant Sinh, a Rahtor Rájput, was born about 1860. He was placed on the *gadi* when only three years old. During his minority, the State has been managed by Shaikh Sháhamat Alí as Political Agent. Education has much advanced of late years; there are (1875) 23 schools, with 1510 pupils. Jail; good roads. A steam engine has been imported to work a saw-mill and a grinding-mill; the introduction of a cotton-mill is in contemplation, and experiments are being made with the view to supplying the capital with water-works. In 1875, 9962 patients were treated at the Ratlám Dispensary. The Rájá of Ratlám has a personal salute of 13 guns. His military establishment consists of 5 field guns, 58 artillerymen, 35 cavalry, and 300 infantry.

Ratlám.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Málwá, Central India. Lat. 23° 21′ N., long. 75° 7′ E.; 1577 feet above sea level. Good *bázárs*. One of the principal seats of the opium trade of Málwá.

the banks of the rivers or salt-water creeks in the neighbourhood of the sea; but the soil is generally poor, consisting in great measure of a stiff ferruginous clay, often mixed with gravel. There are several cocoa-nut plantations in the District. In 1876-77, rice occupied 143,636 acres. The better kinds of rice land produce also sugar-cane and second crops of some description of pulse or vegetable. By far the greater proportion of the food crops consist of inferior grains, called *warkas*. The *warkas* land may be divided into the more level parts, where the plough can be used; and the steeper slopes admitting only of cultivation by manual labour. The best of the poorer soils bear crops for five or six successive years, and then require a fallow of nearly equal duration.

The land tenures of the District differ from that of Bombay generally, in that there is a class of large landholders, called *khots*, in the position of middle-men between Government and the actual cultivators. Considerable areas on the coast and along the banks of the larger creeks have been granted on reclamation leases. The years 1792, 1802, and 1877, are remembered as terrible seasons of famine in this District. The poverty of the overcrowded peasants on the sterile uplands of Ratnágiri has attracted much attention of late; and the local tenures have furnished a most difficult problem to the Bombay Courts and the Government.

Trade, etc.—From beyond the line of the Sahyádris, grain, cotton, and sugar are brought down to the sea-coast for exportation, and the carts and bullocks thus engaged generally take back cocoa-nuts, salt, and dried fish. The total value of the sea-borne trade of the seventeen ports in the District amounted in 1876 to £2,410,611, of which £1,004,547 represented the exports, and £1,406,064 imports. . The manufactures of Ratnágiri are unimportant. In 1852, Captain (now Sir George) Wingate wrote: 'There are not even bullock-paths from many villages to the nearest market towns, and the whole of the produce sent there for sale is taken upon men's heads. Carts are unknown.' But of late years, many improvements have been made. Two good cart-roads now cross the Sahyádri Hills, and also a trunk road, with branches from one end of the District to the other. There are at present 500 miles of road in the District. Labourers earn 5¼d. a day; bricklayers and carpenters, 1s. a day. The current prices of the chief articles of food in 1876 were, for a rupee—rice, 27 lbs.; *nágli*, 41 lbs.; *dál* (split-peas), 21 lbs.

Administration.—The total revenue in 1876-77 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £133,955; the incidence of taxation per head being 2s. 7½d. The land tax forms the principal source of income, yielding £90,882. The District local funds, created since 1863, yielded a total of £13,404. There are four municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 35,348 persons. Their receipts

were returned at £2286, and the incidence of taxation varied from ¼d. to 1s. 1d. per head of population. The District is administered by a Collector and 4 Assistants. It is provided with a District Judge's court, and 9 civil courts. The total strength of the regular police in 1876-77 consisted of 765 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 1332 of the population and to every 4·95 square miles of the area. The total cost was £10,886, equal to £2, 17s. 5½d. per square mile of area and 2½d. per head of population. The District contains one jail. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 20 schools, attended by 2403 pupils. In 1876-77, there were 147 schools, with 8776 pupils, or an average of 1 school for every 8 villages. Four newspapers were published in 1876-77.

Climate.—The annual rainfall during the five years ending 1876 averaged 105 inches. The prevailing diseases are intermittent fevers and leprosy. There are 3 dispensaries in the District, and a hospital for lepers.

Ratnágiri.—Chief town of Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 59′ 37″ N., and long. 73° 19′ 50″ N., 136 miles south by east of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 10,614. The town is open, and faces the sea; the fort stands on a rock between two small bays, but these afford neither shelter nor good anchorage, as they are completely exposed and have a rocky bottom. With any breeze from the west, a heavy surf breaks on the bar, and boats can only enter at high tide. The water supply is entirely derived from wells, which are for the most part never-failing. One object of interest connected with Ratnágiri is the *tárli* or sardine fishery, which usually takes place in the months of January and February, when fleets of canoes may be seen engaged in this occupation. A single net-caster will fill his canoe in the course of a morning. The fishing ground is just outside the breakers. The industry can be carried on only when the water is sufficiently clear to admit of the fish being readily seen. The salt-water creek to the south of the fort is only practicable for country craft of under 20 tons burden. The average annual value of the trade of Ratnágiri port for the five years ending 1873-74 is returned at £308,646, viz. imports, £42,576, and exports, £266,070. The chief imports are salt, timber, catechu, and grain; exports—fuel, fish, and bamboos. Besides being the headquarters of the District officers, Ratnágiri has a sub-judge's court, civil hospital, and post office. The lighthouse was erected in 1867. The elevation of the lantern above high water is 250 feet, and the height of the building, from base to vane, 37 feet. It exhibits a single, red, fixed dioptric light, of order 3, which is visible at 18 miles' distance.

Rato Dero.—*Táluk* of Lárkána Sub-District, Shikárpur Collectorate, Sind. Area, 228 square miles; pop. (1872), 35,896. Gross revenue in 1873-74, £9720.

Rato Dero. — Chief town of Rato Dero *táluk*, in Lárkána Sub-District, Shikárpur, Sind; 18 miles north-east by north from Lárkána. Headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár*, and *tappadár*, and contains the usual public buildings. Municipal revenue in 1873-74, £341. Pop. (1872), 3057, of whom 1646 were Muhammadans and 1411 Hindus. Local trade in grain. Rato Dero was formerly the encampment of a chief of the Jalbáni tribe called Rato.

Rat-thit.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-lay township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. In the north, the country is hilly and covered with dense forest, abounding in teak, *pyeng-ga-do*, and *sha*. Pop. (1876-77), 4329; gross revenue, £744.

Rau Karna.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 7 miles from Unao town, on the road to Safipur. Pop. (1869), 2273, of whom only 78 are Muhammadans. Small market, twice a week.

Ráver.—Town in the Sonda Subdivision of Khándesh District, Bombay. Lat. 21° 15′ N., long. 76° 4′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 6558. Station on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 297 miles north-east of Bombay. Ráver has a local reputation for its manufactures of gold thread and articles of native apparel. It was ceded by the Nizám to the Peshwá in 1763, and by the latter bestowed on Holkar's family. Post office.

Ráver. — Town in Nimár District, Central Provinces; on the Nerbudda (Narbada) river, 40 miles from Khandwa. It contains the cenotaph of the Peshwá Báji Ráo, who died at Ráver in 1740, when about to invade Northern India for the second time. The monument is built of variegated sandstone, enclosed in a spacious *dharmsála* of strong masonry. A handsome *ghát*, opposite the platform in the centre of the river, where the funeral rites were performed, has been much injured by floods. Ráver lies a short distance from the Barwái or Dhangáon travellers' bungalow, and is also accessible from Barwái by boat.

Rávi.—River in the Punjab (Panjáb); one of the five great streams from which the Province derives its name. The *Hydraotes* of Arrian, and the *Iravati* of Sanskrit authors. Rises in Kullu, Kángra District, and immediately passes into Chamba State. Strikes upon British territory again on the borders of Gurdáspur District, opposite Basáoli in Jamu, and forms the boundary of our dominions for 25 miles, with a general south-westerly course. Leaves the hills on the southern bank at Sháhpur, but still flows between high cliffs, while on the Jamu side the mountains descend to its very brink. At Madhupur, the headworks of the BARI DOAB CANAL draw off a large portion of its waters. Thenceforward, the banks sink in height, and the river assumes the usual character of the Punjab streams, flowing in the centre of an alluvial valley, with outer banks at some distance from the present bed.

In 1870, it carried away the Tali Sáhib shrine near Derá Nának, a place of great sanctity with the Síkhs, and still threatens the town. The Rávi next passes between Siálkot and Amritsar Districts, preserving the general south-westerly direction which it has taken since leaving the mountains. The depth is here not more than a foot in March and April, swelling in June and September to 18 or 20 feet. Entering the District of Lahore, it runs within 1 mile of Lahore city, and throws out several branches, which soon, however, rejoin the parent stream. A bridge of boats conveys across the Lahore and Peshawar road. After entering Montgomery District, it receives its chief tributary, the Degh, on its north-western bank, and then passes into Múltán (Mooltan) District. Finally, it falls into the Chenáb (Chináb) (lat. 30° 31′ N., long. 71° 51′ 20″ E.), after a total length of about 450 miles. Throughout its course in the plains, it flows everywhere in a comparatively narrow valley, often only a couple of miles in width, with a very tortuous channel. Few islands are formed, but the bed shifts occasionally from place to place. Its floods only fertilize a fringe of 1 or 2 miles on either side; and it is little employed for purposes of direct irrigation, though it supplies water both to the Bári Doáb and Hásli Canals. Navigation is difficult, but grain is shipped from Lahore in considerable quantities. *Deodár* timber, floated down in rafts from the Chamba forests, only finds its way to Lahore in seasons of heavy flood. In former times, the Rávi did not join the Chenáb until a point below Múltán city, and its ancient bed may still be traced. Even now, at times of high flood, the water finds its way to Múltán by the old channel.

Ráwal Pindi.—A British Division or Commissionership in the Punjab, comprising the four Districts of RAWAL PINDI, JHELUM, GUJRAT, and SHAHPUR, each of which see separately. Area of Ráwal Pindi Division, 16,724 square miles; pop. (1868), 2,197,387 souls.

Ráwal Pindi.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 33° and 34° N. lat., and between 71° 46′ and 73° 41′ E. long.; with an area of 6218 square miles, and a population in 1868 of 711,256 souls. Bounded on the north by Hazára District, on the east by the river Jhelum, on the south by Jhelum District, and on the west by the Indus. The administrative headquarters are at the town of RAWAL PINDI.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Ráwal Pindi forms a portion of the rugged and broken Himálayan spur which projects irregularly into the northern angle of the Sind Ságar Doáb. Its surface is cut up in every direction by mountain ranges entering it from either side, while the intermediate valleys are intersected by minor heights, whose confused and irregular masses crop out in picturesque diversity, to the despair of the systematic geographer. So far as these fantastic bosses

can be reduced to any order, they naturally divide themselves into two characteristic regions, on the east and west of an imaginary central line. The eastern range, running along the side of the Jhelum river, is known by the name of the Murree (Marri) Hills, from the sanatorium perched upon its northern extremity. It is composed of sandstone slopes, the direct outliers of the Himálayas, and is clothed with magnificent forest trees and a rich undergrowth of brushwood. Near the summer station of Murree (Marri), the spur attains a height of 8000 feet, and stretching thence into the District of Hazára, loses itself at last in the snowy ranges of Kashmír. The view from the sanatorium embraces the white cloud-like summits of the Kashmír Mountains, with a rich and varied foreground of wooded hillside and cultivated dale. Southward, the hills decrease in height, growing more diversified and angular, but gaining in picturesqueness what they lose in sublimity. Villages appear on every jutting ledge, half hidden amid the foliage of lilacs and mulberries, overtopped by a graceful mosque, and threatened from above by some frowning fortress of Síkh or Ghakkar chieftain. At length, on the southern frontier, the hills slowly subside into a comparatively level country, only divided from the valley of the Jhelum by a narrow barrier of sandstone. The western half of the District presents a very different appearance. Its mountains belong to the trans-Indus system, which is here severed by the deeply cut channel of the great river, so as to give off a series of isolated ridges, cutting up the opposite bank into wild mazes of limestone hills. The soil here is dry and barren; the vegetation is scanty and stunted; the valleys are mere water-worn ravines or beds of flooded torrents; and the population is crowded into large villages, which lie scattered at great distances among the inhospitable rocks. The chief range of these western mountains is known as the Chitta Pahár, from the whiteness of its exposed nummulitic beds. To the north lies the fertile valley of Chach, one of the rare oases which relieve the wildness of this savage waste. A minor range ends in the black cliffs of Attock, an important ferry and fortress on the Indus, now held by a strong European force, including a battery of artillery. Smaller lines of hills cover the remainder of the area, in too great numbers for special description. Of the rivers, the INDUS claims first rank, and bounds the District along its whole western edge. After entering in a narrow channel from Hazára, it suddenly expands to a breadth of more than a mile, and embraces many wooded islets in its placid stream. At ATTOCK it contracts once more, as it rushes under the dark rocks of Jalália and Kamália; while below, it again becomes a broad blue lake at Bágh Niláb, and yet again narrows to pass through the beetling gorge of the Mokhad Hills. At Mokhad it becomes navigable for steamers, and immediately passes beyond the borders of Ráwal Pindi. The JHELUM on the eastern frontier (the *Hydaspes* of Greek and Roman

writers) is equally picturesque, though less important for navigation. The other chief rivers are the SOHAN and the HAROH, both tributaries of the Indus. They run in a south-westerly course, and are fordable at ordinary seasons, though they become dangerous and seething torrents after continued rain.

History.—Few Districts in India can claim so long a period of authentic history as Ráwal Pindi; for although it does not share in the mythical glories of the *Mahábhárata*, it contains many of the towns connected with the great events of Alexander's Punjab campaign, and is accordingly enshrined in the more trustworthy pages of Arrian and Pliny. Its earliest inhabitants appear to have been the Takkas, a Turanian race who held the greater part of the Sind Ságar Doáb, and gave their name to the town of Takshásila (the *Taxila* of Greek geographers). Alexander found it 'a rich and populous city, the largest between the Indus and Hydaspes;' and its site has been identified in the ruins of DERA SHAHAN or SHAH DERI, which lie to the north of the Margala Pass in this District. Fifty years after Alexander's invasion, the people of Taxila were subject to the King of Magadha; and a rebellion on their part was put down by prince Asoka, afterwards the famous Buddhist Emperor of Upper India. The notes of the two great Buddhist pilgrims from China during the middle ages show us that Taxila remained a place of peculiar sanctity until the period of Muhammadan conquest. Many relics of ancient temples are still to be found in the District, and legend connects their sites in several cases with important events in the life of Buddha himself. But when the Musalmán invasions first draw the veil which hangs over Indian history from the era of Alexander down to the 11th century, we find the country around Taxila in possession of the Ghakkars, a non-Aryan tribe, who are described by Ferishta as mere savages, addicted to the grossest forms of polyandry and infanticide. In 1008, Mahmúd of Ghazní was met on the plains of Chach by the forces of the Rájput confederacy under Prithwi Rájá, and his victory was almost averted through the impetuous attack of 30,000 Ghakkars. But the battle ended in the total defeat of the Rájputs, and all upper India lay helpless at the feet of the Musalmán conqueror. Mahmúd, however, appears to have left the Ghakkars in quiet possession of their mountain home, and to have pressed on to the occupation of more fertile regions. We next hear of the tribe in 1205, when the reverses of Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori in Kharizm encouraged them to rise in revolt against their Muhammadan suzerain, and to ravage the Punjab up to the very gates of Lahore. But the Sultán returned unexpectedly to India, defeated the rebellious Ghakkars with great slaughter, and compelled them to embrace the faith of Islám. Shaháb-ud-dín did not live to profit by their conversion; for on his way home to his western dominions he was surprised on the farther bank of the Indus by a

Ghakkar detachment, who swam the river and murdered him at night in his tent. Under subsequent rulers, the country maintained its character for turbulence, being always ready for revolt whenever the misfortunes of the reigning prince afforded a favourable opportunity. Bábar attacked the Ghakkar capital of Pharwála, and he gives an interesting account of its capture in his autobiography. It was strongly situated in the hills, and was defended with great bravery by its chief Háti Khán, who escaped from one gate as the Mughal army marched in at the other. Háti Khán died by poison in 1525, and his cousin and murderer, Sultán Sárang, made submission to Bábar, who conferred upon him in return the Putwár country. Thenceforth the Ghakkar chieftains became firm allies of the Mughal dynasty, whom they were able to aid efficiently in their struggle with the house of Sher Sháh. During the flourishing period of the Delhi Empire, the family of Sárang retained their territorial possessions and high social status in the Punjab; but with the decay of the central power they fell a prey, like so many of their neighbours, to the aggressive rule of the Síkh marauders. In 1765, during the total paralysis of the Delhi government, Sardár Gújar Sinh Bhangi, a powerful Síkh chieftain, marched from Lahore against the last independent Ghakkar prince, Mukarrab Khán, whom he defeated outside the walls of Gujrát. Mukarrab retired beyond the Jhelum, where he was soon treacherously murdered by his own tribesmen; but the traitors forthwith quarrelled over their spoil, and fell one by one before Sardár Gújar Sinh. The Síkhs ruled Ráwal Pindi with their usual rapacity, exacting as revenue the last *ánná* that could be wrung from the proprietors, who were often glad to admit their tenants as joint-sharers, in order to lighten the incidence of the revenue. Gújar Sinh held the District throughout his life, and left it on his death to his son, Sáhib Sinh, who fell in 1810 before the power of the great Ranjít. Another Síkh Sardár, Milka Sinh, fixed upon the site of Ráwal Pindi, then occupied by an insignificant village, for his headquarters, and conquered the surrounding country on his own account. His estates were confirmed to his son by Ranjít Sinh, until his death in 1814, when they were annexed to the general territory of Lahore. The Murree (Marri) Hills long retained their independence under their Ghakkar chieftains; but in 1830, the Síkhs succeeded in reducing them after a bloody struggle, by which the population was almost decimated, and the country reduced to a desert.

In 1849, Ráwal Pindi passed with the rest of the Síkh dominions under British rule; and though tranquillity was disturbed by an insurrection four years later, its administration was generally peaceful until the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857. The long anarchy and internecine strife of Síkh and Ghakkar could not be forgotten, especially in a wild and lonely region, where British organization extends with difficulty to

the remote gorges and scattered hamlets of a rocky labyrinth. The events of 1857 offered an outlet for the smouldering passions of ancestral feud, and the Murree (Marri) Hills became the scene of an attempted insurrection. The authorities received information from a faithful native of a projected attack upon the station in time to concert measures for defence. The ladies, who were present in large numbers, were placed in safety; the Europeans and police were drawn up in a cordon around the station; and when the enemy arrived, expecting no resistance, they met with a hot reception, which caused them to withdraw in disorder, and shortly after to disband themselves. The District has since experienced no serious commotion; but crimes of violence are frequent.

Population.—In a District so extensive and so rugged as Ráwal Pindi, it is naturally difficult to conduct an enumeration of the people with minute accuracy, and there are grounds for doubting the correctness of all statistics prior to the Census of 1868. An enumeration in 1855 returned the total population as 553,750. In 1868, the total number was ascertained to be 711,256, showing an increase for the thirteen years of 157,506 persons, or 28 per cent. of the former population. Though the long period of peace and prosperity which Ráwal Pindi has enjoyed since the British occupation would suffice to account for a large augmentation of numbers, it is probable that some part of this apparent increase must be set down to under-statement on the first occasion. The total area of the District is 6218 square miles, containing, in 1868, 1658 villages or townships, and 175,579 houses. From these figures the following averages may be obtained:—Persons per square mile, 114; villages or townships per square mile, 0·27; persons per village, 428; houses per square mile, 28·24; persons per house, 4·06. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 384,286; females, 326,970: proportion of males, 54·03 per cent. These figures exhibit the usual preponderance of the stronger sex, which doubtless points to the former prevalence of female infanticide. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 144,346; females, 124,175; total children, 268,521, or 37·75 per cent. of the population. In religion, Ráwal Pindi is a stronghold of Muhammadanism, as many as 621,169, or 87·33 per cent. of the inhabitants, being returned as adherents of Islám. The Hindus are scantily represented by 60,720 persons, or 8·54 per cent. of the inhabitants; while the once dominant Síkhs number no more than 24,355 persons, yielding a meagre percentage of 3·42. The remaining 5012 are returned as 'others.' As regards the ethnical divisions of the people, the Bráhmans of Ráwal Pindi number 20,259 persons; but in this extreme northern corner, surrounded by an overwhelming Musalmán element, and engaged in commerce or agriculture, the Bráhmans find little scope for

their priestly character, and indulge in many practices which would greatly scandalize their stricter brethren in the south. Yet they are quite as minutely subdivided as elsewhere into minor clans, each of which has its acknowledged rank in the social scale, and refuses to eat or intermarry with the inferior classes. The Rájputs are the strongest body numerically, having a total of 105,741 souls: their customs, however, require no special notice, and they are almost exclusively Muhammadans in creed. The principal trading classes are the Kshattriyas or Khatris (42,716) and the Arorás (8912), both retaining the old Hindu faith, and with their co-religionists the Bráhmans, monopolizing the commerce of the District. They replace the Banias of Hindustán proper, and are considered quite their equals in rapacity and cunning. The Játs number 65,729, almost all Muhammadans, and keep up their usual reputation as careful and industrious agriculturists. In the eastern half of the District, they form the principal labouring population. The Ghakkars, whose history has been already detailed, now amount to only 10,153 persons. They are a fine and spirited race, gentlemen in ancestry and bearing, and clinging under all reverses to the traditions of noble blood. Though reduced to poverty in many cases by the Síkhs, they are still respected in the District as a native aristocracy, and would come to the front, for good or for evil, in any period of general disturbance. The other principal tribes are the Gújars (33,369), Patháns (29,115), Kashmíris (21,691), Sayyids (16,122), Dhúnds (13,509), and Satis (11,498). The most ordinary social distinction is that of *sahu* or gentleman, and *zamíndár* or labourer: the Ghakkars, Rájputs, and Sayyids are considered as belonging to the former class; the Játs may be looked upon as typifying the latter. The native aristocracy are passionately addicted to sport, especially in the form of hawking. With reference to occupation, the Census returns give the following results:—Agriculturists, 473,778; non-agriculturists, 237,478. There were only 3 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 5000, namely—RAWAL PINDI, 19,228; HAZRO, 7280; and PINDI GHAB, 8223; total 34,731 persons, or an urban population of only 4·8 per cent. The main body of the inhabitants are scattered in tiny hamlets over the face of the country. The station of Murree (Marri) has a permanent population of only 2346 souls; but during the height of the summer season, this is swelled by visitors to 12 or 13 thousand. Panjábi is the language in common use, though the educated classes understand Urdu. In Chach and Mokhad, Pushtu is spoken by the Pathán population.

Agriculture.—The staple spring crop of the District is wheat, while *bájra* forms the mainstay of the autumn harvest. The inferior grains are now falling into disfavour, and their place has been taken by more valuable cereals, and by cotton and potatoes. The cultivation of tea has

been introduced and sedulously fostered, but the results hitherto attained have not been encouraging. The area under the principal crops in 1871-72 was as follows:—Wheat, 309,846 acres; gram, 14,508; barley, 56,233; oil-seeds, 59,904; *joár*, 57,436; *bájra*, 177,913; cotton, 26,873; *moth*, 44,787; *múng*, 19,826. As almost every field in the District is more or less on an incline, the rain-water rapidly drains away, without benefiting the soil; and it has been necessary in most cases to retard its escape by a rude system of terraces, embanked at their lower extremity. A more ambitious work, requiring the co-operation of villages and expenditure of capital, is the embankment of ravines, which is practised to some extent both here and in the neighbouring District of Jhelum. Irrigation by any other mode is little employed. The best lands are sown for three consecutive harvests with wheat and *bájra* alternately, and lie fallow for the fourth; inferior soils bear two crops in the same year, and then recruit during the following twelve months. Rotation of crops in any higher form is unknown. The average produce per acre is given in the Government returns for 1871-72 as follows:—Rice, 732 lbs.; cotton, 168 lbs.; wheat, 516 lbs.; inferior grains, 315 lbs.; oil-seeds, 342 lbs. The peasantry are in comfortable circumstances; their houses are neatly furnished and scrupulously clean, and they are rapidly extricating themselves from the clutches of the village money-lender. Under Síkh rule, it is calculated that 50 per cent. of the cultivators were in debt; at present, only 10 per cent. are believed to be so involved. The tenures of the District are very varied, from the ancestral *zamíndárí*, or common undivided holding with division of profits, to the modern occupancy right of tenants who can show twelve years of uninterrupted cultivation. Rents vary according to the nature of the soil and the caste of the tenant. They are sometimes paid in grain, by fractions of the produce. Where cash rates prevail, they rule as follows:—Rice lands, from 6s. to 14s. per acre; wheat lands, from 3s. to 6s.; oil-seed lands, from 2s. to 6s. Wages have increased from 50 to 75 per cent. since the Síkh rule. In towns they are paid in cash; but the agricultural labourer generally receives his wages in kind. Prices were returned as follows in January 1871:—Wheat, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; *joár*, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 3¾d. per cwt. These rates are considerably higher than those which ruled up to 1867.

Natural Calamities.—In 1843-44, during the Síkh supremacy, Ráwal Pindi was devastated by an incursion of locusts, which overran the whole country in enormous swarms, and for a while almost succeeded in depopulating the District. They appeared just in time to devour the whole autumn crop of 1843; they remained for the succeeding spring crops; and at last they took their departure after utterly destroying the autumn harvest of 1844. Ráwal Pindi is still suffering from the

remote effects of this terrible visitation. The Síkh authorities insisted upon realizing the utmost farthing of their revenue from the starving cultivators, who were obliged to have recourse to the trading classes; and so commenced a system of chronic indebtedness, which has not even yet entirely passed away. The tenures of land were completely revolutionized, to the great disadvantage of the proprietary class, as the Síkhs admitted tenants to share the burdens and privileges of the landowners, in order the more readily to collect their exorbitant imposts. The British courts are still flooded with litigation, arising from the disorganization of this unhappy period.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—So rugged a District as Ráwal Pindi has naturally but little commerce, and that little is concentrated at the head-quarters town and at Házro. The imports comprise sugar, spices, cotton goods (European and native), and salt. The exports are confined to the raw materials of agriculture. The only manufacture of importance is that of cotton-weaving, which employed 13,078 looms in 1871-72; the annual out-turn is valued at 7 *lákhs* of rupees, or £70,000. The wealth resulting from long and settled peace finds its way into the hands of the cultivating classes, and is chiefly hoarded in the form of jewellery. A great horse-fair is held annually at Ráwal Pindi, at which Government prizes are distributed, and animals from all parts of the Punjab are exhibited and sold. The Grand Trunk Road is the principal means of communication, having just 100 miles of metalled line within the District. There are 28 miles of other metalled highway, and 1133 miles of unmetalled roads in Ráwal Pindi. The Indus is navigable here throughout its whole course by native craft, and becomes practicable for steamers below Mokhad. Two telegraph lines traverse the District, namely, the main wire from Lahore to Pesháwar, and a branch from Ráwal Pindi to the summer station at Murree (Marri). The Punjab Northern State Railway will also run through the whole length of the District.

Administration.—The ordinary administrative staff of this extensive District comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 Cantonment Magistrate, and 7 *tahsíldárs*, besides the ordinary medical and constabulary officers. There are military establishments at Ráwal Pindi, Murree (Marri), Attock, and Campbellpur. The total revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £89,226, of which sum £68,659, or more than three-fourths of the whole, was due to the land tax. The other principal items were stamps, local rates, excise, and opium. In the same year the District contained 15 first-class and 7 second-class police stations, and the regular police numbered 801 men of all ranks, being 1 constable to every 887 inhabitants and to every 7·75 square miles. The total number of persons brought to trial in 1871, for all offences great or small, was 7911, or 1 in every 89 inhabitants.

Crimes of violence are still unhappily common; human life is lightly regarded by the wild tribes of the western gorges, and the ancestral blood-feuds are only lulled for a while by the severity of English law. Murders prompted by conjugal jealousies are also of frequent occurrence. There is a Divisional jail at Ráwal Pindi, the total number of prisoners in which was 2148 in 1872; but some of these were offenders from neighbouring Districts. The average daily strength was 1009. Education is making satisfactory progress. The total number of pupils on the rolls in 1873 was 10,382, and the expenditure from public funds amounted to £4329. Female education, especially, has made rapid strides of late years, through the benevolent exertions of Bedi Khem Sinh, a native gentleman of Kallár, who has established 32 girls' schools in this District, besides others in Jhelum (Jhílam); they are chiefly attended by Hindu children, though there is also a fair sprinkling of Muhammadans. The Lawrence Memorial Asylum at Murree (Marri) is devoted to the education of the children of European soldiers, and enjoys an income amounting in 1873 to £3447. There is also a school for the benefit of residents at Murree (Marri) in the hot season, which is transferred to Ráwal Pindi during the winter. The normal school for training teachers at the last-named town had 39 students in 1873. The District is subdivided into 7 *tahsíls*, and 38 *ilákas*. There are municipalities at Ráwal Pindi, Murree (Marri), Attock, and Házro; but a municipal income is also realized at seven other towns or villages. The total revenue of these 11 places during the year 1871-72 amounted to £8642, being at the rate of 2s. 6⅞d. per head of their population.

Sanitary Aspects.—Ráwal Pindi has two rainy seasons, the first from January to March, and the second from July to August. During the winter, the weather is cold and even severe, but in summer the heat cannot be exceeded in any part of India. The climate of the Murree (Marri) Hills is said to be peculiarly adapted to the English constitution. The mean temperature in the shade at Ráwal Pindi in 1871-72 is recorded as follows:—May, 86·5° F.; July, 89·5°; December, 54·5°. The maximum heat was 118·2°, and the minimum 28·5°. The total rainfall was 16·2 inches in 1867-68; 38·2 inches in 1868-69; 16·5 inches in 1869-70; 36·2 inches in 1870-71; and 32·8 inches in 1871-72. The principal disease of the District is fever, which exists in an endemic form. The total number of reported deaths from all causes was 18,192 in 1870; 16,104 in 1871; and 12,453 in 1872; or 26, 23, and 18 per thousand respectively. Of these deaths, as many as 14,758, 10,889, and 8221, or 21, 15, and 11 per thousand respectively, were assigned to fever alone. Cattle diseases are very prevalent, and carry off a large number of the live-stock.

Ráwal Pindi.—*Tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District Punjab, lying along the foot of the Murree (Marri) Hills.

Ráwal Pindi.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. Lat. 33° 37′ N., long. 73° 6′ E.; pop. (1868), 19,228, consisting of 6490 Hindus, 10,218 Muhammadans, 2197 Síkhs, 44 Christians, and 279 'others.' The present town is of quite modern origin, but General Cunningham has identified certain ruins on the site of the cantonments with the ancient city of Gajipur, the capital of the Bhatti tribe in the ages preceding the Christian era. Greek and other early coins, as well as broken bricks, occur over an area of 2 square miles. Known within historical times as Fatehpur Baori, it fell into decay during one of the Mughal invasions in the 14th century. Jhanda Khán, a Ghakkar chief, restored the town, and gave it the present name of Ráwal Pindi. Sardár Milka Sinh, a Síkh adventurer, occupied it in 1765, and invited traders from the neighbouring commercial centres of Jhelum and Sháhpur to settle in his territory. Thenceforward Ráwal Pindi grew rapidly, and, on the introduction of British rule, became the site of an important cantonment. The modern town is well built, and has an air of considerable prosperity, with broad and handsome streets, and many brick houses. The inhabitants consist of Ghakkars, Bhattis, Awáns, Kashmíris, Kshattriyas, and Bráhmans, the last two castes having a monopoly of trade. Court-houses, treasury, jail, police office, dispensary, 2 *saráis*, *tahsíli*, and numerous other public buildings. Government normal school, Presbyterian mission; *dák* bungalow; 2 European hotels; head office of Punjab Bank. Considerable trade with Amritsar and Pind Dádan Khán. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5129, or 4s. 11¼d. per head of population (20,768) within municipal limits.

Ráwal Pindi.—Cantonments in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying to the south of the native town, from which they are separated by the little river Leh. Occupy a space of 3 miles in length by 2 in breadth, and contained in 1868 a population of 6581, including the English and Native troops. The barracks are capable of accommodating about 2500 European soldiers. The garrison usually consists of 2 European and 2 Native infantry corps, a regiment of Native cavalry, and 2 batteries of artillery. The cantonments contain several European shops, and occupy the site of an ancient Hindu city, whose ruins may still be detected in many places. Lat. 33° 36′ 20″ N., long. 73° 5′ 40″ E.

Ráya.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab, extending along the bank of the river Rávi. Area, 493 square miles; pop. (1868), 199,748; persons per square mile, 405; number of villages, 467.

Ráyadrug.—Town in Bellary District.—*See* RAIDRUG.

Ráyagudda (or *Rájágudda*).—Kandh village in Jáipur *zamíndárí*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 19° 9′ 40″ N., long. 83° 27′ 30″ E.; 33 miles north-west of Párvatipur. Formerly residence of the Jáipur Rájá. Sub-magistrate's station, with thriving trade.

Ráyak.—Village in the Garo Hills District, on the Sameswari river; with a considerable population engaged in fishing. In the neighbourhood is a large cave in the limestone formation. The entrance is about 20 feet high, and the total length about 100 feet, terminating in a spacious, dome-shaped chamber. A small stream trickles through the cavern, and the whole place is filled with swarms of bats.

Ráyakottai.—Village in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. 12° 31′ N., long. 78° 5′ E.; pop. (1871), 1881, residing in 376 houses. One of the Báramahál fortresses, until recently occupied by troops. It commanded one of the most important passes, and its capture by Major Gowdie in 1791 was the first exploit in Lord Cornwallis' great march. The fort was ceded to the English by the treaty of 1792; and it was under its walls that the army of General Harris encamped in 1799, before entering Mysore territory on the way to Seringapatam. The remains of the fort on the Durgam (2449 feet above sea level) still exist, as does also the European cemetery.

Ráyan.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 32′ N., long. 74° 17′ E.; 27 miles north-west of the city of Jodhpur. Thornton mentions a fort here, situated on a rock about 200 feet above the plain, and commanding the whole town. Estimated population, according to Boileau, 5650.

Ráyapetta (*Royapet*).—Suburb of the city of MADRAS.

Ráyavalasa.—Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 15′ N., long. 83° 7′ E.; leading from Kásipur or Kásimkota to Jáipur by the abandoned sanatorium of Gallikonda. Crest of the pass, 2850 feet above the sea. The Mahárájá of Vizianágaram has a coffee estate here.

Raygad.—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay.—*See* RAIGARH.

Re.—A river of British Burma; rising near the Attaran, at the head of the valley formed by the Toung-gnyo and Ma-hlwai Hills. It falls into the sea in lat. 15° 5′ N., in the extreme south of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division. This stream is only navigable within the influence of the tide. Its mouth being exposed to the ocean affords no shelter, and is difficult of approach, owing to numerous rocks and reefs distant about 4 miles from the shore.

Redi.—Port in the Málwan Subdivision of Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated in lat. 15° 45′ 15″ N., and long. 73° 42′ 30″ E., 7 miles south of Vingorla, and 89 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £2570—viz. imports, £993, and exports, £1577.

Re-gyaw.—Revenue circle in the Ut-hpo township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876-77), 3583; gross revenue, £621.

Re-gyí.—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division,

British Burma. In the north-west, the country is undulating and covered with *eng* forest; towards the south, there is some rice cultivation. Pop. (1876-77), 2158; revenue, £306.

Re-gyí.—Two adjoining revenue circles in the township of the same name in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 17 square miles, consisting of a rice plain broken by swampy patches and open forest. Chief town, RE-GYI PAN-DAW. Pop. (1876-77), 7752; gross revenue, £2434.

Re-gyí.—A creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It falls into the Nga-won or Bassein river, close to Nga-thaing-khyoung, and in the rains extends eastwards and joins the Da-ga near Kyún-paw. At this season it is about 15 feet deep, and navigable throughout by large boats.

Re-gyí Pan-daw (*Pandan Yaygyí*).—Town and headquarters of the Re-gyí township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 19′ 50″ N., and long. 95° 10′ 20″ E., on the Re-gyí creek. Connected with Nga-thaing-khyoung by a good cart-road.

Rehlí.—The southern *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 154,476, residing in 582 villages or townships and 31,025 houses, on an area of 1301 square miles. Lat. 23° 32′ to 24° 1′ N.; long. 78° 12′ to 79° 8′ E.

Rehlí.—Town in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 38′ N., and long. 79° 5′ E., 28 miles south-east of Ságar, in a healthy and fertile country, 1350 feet above sea level. Pop. (1872), 4406, chiefly Bráhmans and Gonds. Chief manufacture, *gúr* or coarse sugar; which, with wheat, is largely exported. Markets are held twice a week, and skilled labour is readily procurable. The early Gond rulers were succeeded by a race of shepherds called Baladeo, who first settled at Khamária, a mile off, but afterwards removed to Rehlí, where they built a fort. The place next passed to the Bundelá chief of Panna, Rájá Chhatar Sál, who granted it with other territory to Bájí Ráo Peshwá, in return for his assistance against Muhammad Khán Bangash, the Governor of Farrukhábád. The present fort was built by the Peshwá. It stands opposite the junction of the Sunár and Dehár rivers, on a height commanding the town, and encloses nearly 2 acres, which was once covered by Marhattá buildings. In 1817, Rehlí, with Ságar, was ceded to the British. Rehlí has a handsome school-house, attended by 180 boys; 5 female schools, attended by 125 girls; dispensary, and post office.

Re-hpyú.—Revenue circle in the Thayet township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 20 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 2591; revenue, £334. Products—rice, sesamum, and plantains.

Re-keng.—Revenue circle in the Meng-gyí township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 15,770; gross revenue, £3633.

Re-keng.—Chief town of the above circle, and headquarters of an Assistant Commissioner; situated on the east bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Contains a market, police station, and dispensary. Pop. (1877), 2997; revenue, £271.

Re-la-maing.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extends along the coast, which is fringed with rocks and small islets. It is watered chiefly by the RE RIVER, the valley of which is very fertile. The township comprises 8 revenue circles; pop. (1876-77), 11,788; land revenue, £1996, and capitation tax, £1317.

Remuná.—Village in Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. 21° 33′ N., long. 86° 59′ E.; 5 miles west of Balasor town. Celebrated for a religious fair held annually in February in honour of Kshírichorá Gopínáth, a form of Krishna; it lasts about 13 days, and is attended by from 10,000 to 12,000 persons. About £600 worth of goods are sold, consisting chiefly of toys, sweetmeats, fruits, vegetables, country cloth, etc. The temple of the god is an unsightly stone edifice defaced by indecent sculptures. It is much frequented during the months of February, April, and November.

Rengan.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, ¾ square mile. There are 8 chiefs. Estimated revenue (1875), £50; tribute of £46 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Reng-e.—Revenue circle in the Za-lwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 4126; gross revenue, £1660.

Reng-gnyiem.—Revenue circle in the Martaban township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2245; capitation tax, £332, and land revenue, £1821.

Rengmá.—Mountain range in the Nágá Hills, Assam, lying between the Jamuna and Kaliání rivers. Lat. 26° 15′ to 26° 30′ N., and long. 93° 24′ to 93° 40′ E.; height, between 2000 and 3000 feet above sea level. The slopes are steep, and clothed with dense jungle and underwood. The Rengmá Nágás, by whom this tract is inhabited, are by far the least savage of all the Nágá tribes, being scarcely distinguishable from the Míkírs, who occupy the tract to the north.

Rengtipahár.—Mountain range in the south of Cáchár District, Assam; running northwards from the Lusháí Hills, and forming the watershed between the Sonái and Dháleswari rivers.

Reng-ún.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 6499; revenue, £520. Products—rice, betel-nut, and sesamum.

Re-tho.—Revenue circle in the Hpoung-leng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Almost entirely under rice cultivation. Pop. (1876-77), 8359; gross revenue, £4326.

Re-tsú-daing.—Tidal creek in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division,

British Burma. After its junction with the Pí-pa-lwot, it is called the Pai-mwot, and a little lower down it receives the waters of the Kywon-pya-that (more correctly the Kywon-bhúra-thad), and thenceforward assumes the name of that river. In about lat. 17° N., it sends off to the southward a large branch, which, as the To or China Bakir, reaches the sea 20 miles west-south-west of the Hlaing or Rangoon river.

Revelganj.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal.—*See* GODNA.

Rewadanda. — Town and port in the Alíbágh Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay; situated 6 miles south by east of Alíbágh, in lat. 18° 32′ 50″ N., and long. 72° 58′ E. Pop. (1872), 5910. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £24,405 of imports, and £40,946 of exports. Post office.

Rewah.—The principal Native State in Bághelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bághelkhand and Central India Agencies, lying between 22° 39′ and 25° 12′ N. lat., and between 80° 46′ and 82° 51′ E. long. Estimated area, 13,000 square miles; estimated pop. 2,035,000. Bounded on the north by the British Districts of Banda, Allahábád, and Mírzápur, in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by part of Mírzápur District and by Native States in Chutiá Nágpur; on the south by the British Districts of Chhatísgarh, Mandla, and Jubbulpore (Jabalpur), in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Maihar, Nagode, Soháwal, and Kothi, Native States in Bághelkhand.

'The western and north-western portions of the State are occupied by mountains, rising in three successive plateaux, or vast terraces, from the valley of the Ganges. Of these, the one lying to the north-east, and styled by Franklin the 'Bindháchal,' or First Range, is the lowest, having an average elevation of only 500 feet above the sea; it is formed of horizontal strata of sandstone, the upper surface presenting an expanse of very great sterility. Little of this plateau, however, is included within the limits of Rewah, the boundary of which on this side coincides nearly with the base of the second range, or Panna Hills. The elevation of these mountains is from 900 to 1200 feet above the sea. They consist of sandstone intermixed with schist and quartz, and, to the west, overlaid with limestone. Above this plateau, nearly parallel to the brow, but more to the south-east, rises the Káimur range. The Tons (south-eastern) and its tributaries, which drain the second plateau, descend to the lower levels in cascades, varying in height from that of Bilohi with 400 feet to that of Chachái with 200. About a third of the country lying south-east of the Káimur Hills constitutes part of the basin of the Són, a tract as yet almost unexplored. That great river, rising in the extreme south of Rewah, flows through the State in a north and north-easterly direction, crossing the north-eastern frontier into the District of Mírzápur. Its principal tributary is the Mahánadi, joining it on the left side, in lat. 24° 5′ N., and long. 81° 6′ E. The

Tons, running north-east from Maihar, first touches the State in lat. 24° 25′ N., and long. 80° 55′ E., and draining the highlands, receives the Beher, the Biland, and several minor torrents. It holds a course generally north-easterly, and passes in lat. 25° 1′ N., and long. 81° 51′ E., into the British District of Allahábád, its length in Rewah being 80 miles. None of the rivers is navigable.'—*Condensed from Thornton.*

The State is rich in minerals and forest produce. The prevailing classes of soil are *mair*, *sengawan*, *domat*, and *bhata*. *Mair* is a black soil, which retains water and moisture well, and needs no irrigation. It produces valuable crops of wheat and other grain. *Sengawan* is a whitish clay, suitable for crops of any kind. *Domat* (literally two soils) is *mair* and *sengawan* mixed, and it produces the crops of both varieties. *Bhata*, red dry soil, is the worst class, producing only inferior crops. Tanks are, as a rule, seldom constructed for irrigation. Owing to the want of embankments, many miles of undulating and cultivable land lie untilled.

According to the family history kept in the Court Records, it appears that the original founder of this principality was Bilagar Deo or Biág Deo (hence the name Bághel), who, leaving his own country in Guzerat in 580 A.D., ostensibly on a religious pilgrimage, but in reality to seize whatever undefended territory he could, first made himself master of the fort of Murpha, and eventually of most of the country from Kálpi to Chandalgarh, and married the daughter of the Rájá of Pirhawán. Bilagar Deo was succeeded by his son, Kurun Deo, in 615, who added to his possessions a large portion of what at present constitutes Rewah, and called it Bághelkhand. He married the daughter of the Rájá of Mandla, and obtained in dower the famous fort of Bandogarh, to which he removed his court. The chiefship descended from father to son for many generations, with varying fortunes. In the time of Birbhan Ráo, the 19th Rájá, who succeeded in 1601, the family of Humáyun Sháh, Emperor of Delhi, being forced by Sher Sháh to flee from Delhi, found shelter in Rewah territory. In 1618, Vikramáditya succeeded and made Rewah his capital, building the fort and town. Abdút Sinh, the 27th Rájá, was only six months old when his father died; and Hardí Sah, the Bundelá chief of Panna, taking advantage of his infancy, invaded Rewah, and took possession of the capital. The young chief and his mother fled to Partábgarh, and after a time, with the assistance of the Emperor of Delhi, expelled Hardí Sah. Abdút Sinh was succeeded by Ajít Sinh, and he in turn by Jái Sinh Deo, in 1809. It was during his rule that British influence was established in Bághelkhand, and the first formal treaty between the British Government and Rewah was made with Jái Sinh Deo in 1812. In that year, a body of Pindári marauders invaded Mírzápur through Rewah State. The Rájá, who was believed to have abetted this enter-

prise, was required to accede to a treaty by which he was acknowledged as ruler of his dominions, and was brought under the protection of the British Government, to whose arbitration he bound himself to refer all disputes with neighbouring chiefs, and engaged to allow British troops to march through, or be stationed in, his territories. The Rájá, however, failed to fulfil his obligations; and when a military post was established in his territory, he attempted to starve out the detachment. Troops were sent to enforce the execution of the engagements, and in June 1813 a second treaty was made confirming the first, and defining more clearly the relations of the Rájá with the British Government. Jái Sinh Deo abdicated in favour of his son, Bishnáth Sinh, who was succeeded in 1834 by his son, Raghuráj Sinh, the present Mahárájá, who was born in 1824. The ruling family are Bághel Rájputs. In 1847, the Mahárájá abolished *satí* throughout his dominions. For his services during the Mutiny of 1857, the tracts of Sohágpur and Amarkantak were conferred in sovereignty on Raghuráj Sinh, who has also received the distinction of Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India. He holds a *sanad* of adoption, and is allowed a personal salute of 19 guns.

The population of Rewah was estimated in 1875 at 2,035,000 souls. The principal landholders are Bráhmans, Thákurs, Kurmís, and Gonds, and the two latter are generally both proprietors and cultivators. Rent is generally paid in kind, and varies from one-sixth to one-tenth of the gross produce. The revenue of the State was estimated in 1875 at 25 *lákhs* of rupees (say £250,000), of which at least one-half is alienated in *jágírs* and other grants; but the actual income which reached the State treasury in that year was found to be only Rs. 720,159 (say £72,015). The chief maintains a force of 900 cavalry, 12,600 infantry, 6 field and 50 other guns, and 100 artillerymen.

The average annual rainfall at Rewah for the three years ending 1875-76 was 59 inches.

Rewah.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Bághelkhand, Central India. Lat. 24° 31′ 30″ N., long. 81° 20′ E.; 131 miles south-west of Allahábád, and 182 north-east of Ságar. Thornton states that the town is surrounded by 3 ramparts, of which the innermost encloses the palace of the Rájá. Pop. (according to Jacquemont), 7000.

Rewa Kántha.—Political Agency in Bombay; comprising 56 petty States, the most important of which are referred to under their respective headings. Estimated total area, 4793 square miles; pop. (1872), 505,732.

Rewári.—Western *tahsíl* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; consisting of an outlying hilly tract, almost separated from the remainder of the District by native territory. The soil is naturally sandy; but the

industry of the Ahír inhabitants, and the copious well-irrigation, have turned it into a singularly prosperous and fruitful country. Numerous streams flow through it from the Jáipur Hills.

Rewári.—Municipal town in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 28° 12′ N., long. 70° 40′ E.; pop. (1868), 24,503. Rewári is situated on the Delhi and Jáipur (Jeypore) road, 34 miles south-east of Gurgáon town. Ancient town, owing its present commercial importance to British rule. The débris of an earlier city covers a site known as Budhi Rewári, east of the modern walls. Local tradition attributes its foundation to Rájá Karm Pál, of unknown date. Even the present town has considerable antiquity, having been founded about 1000 A.D. by Rájá Ráwath. The native Rájás seem to have maintained a partial independence under the Mughal Empire, renting their *parganá* at a fixed revenue. They also built the fort of Gokalgarh, near the town, now in ruins, but exhibiting marks of great strength. They coined their own money, one of the most cherished prerogatives of independent sovereignty in India, and their currency bore the name of Gokal Sikka. On the collapse of the Mughal Empire, Rewári fell first to the Marhattás and afterwards to the Ját Rájás of Bhartpur, who retained it till the cession of the Delhi territory in 1803. In 1805, the *parganá* was brought under direct British rule, and the town became for some time the headquarters of a District. A military cantonment was established near the civil station. The security of British rule attracted large numbers of traders from the neighbouring Native States, for which Rewári now forms a central emporium. Imports of iron from Ulwur (Alwar), employed in the manufactures of the town, and exported to Bhawáni, to the Punjab generally, and to the North-Western Provinces; of *ghi*, oil, ginger, and cloth from Bhawáni; of molasses, rice, and sugar from the south for exportation to Ulwur; and of salt from the Sámbhar Lake, which, with iron, forms the chief return trade to the North-Western Provinces. Manufacture of hardware, made of mixed metal, and valued at £20,000 per annum. Handsome town hall; new city gates; Government offices; police station; school-house; dispensary. The surplus revenues of the municipality are devoted to improving and embellishing the town. Municipal income in 1875-76, £2903, or 2s. 3⅝d. per head of population (25,237) within municipal limits. The fort of Gokalgarh, in the vicinity of the town, was built by the native Rájás during Mughal times. Though now in ruins, it was of considerable strength.

Rewás. — Port in the Alíbágh Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay. Lat. 18° 47′ 20″ N., long. 72° 58′ 30″ E.; 10 miles north-east of Alíbágh. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £8946—viz. imports, £1365, and exports, £7581.

Riah.—*Tahsíl* in Siálkot District, Punjab.—*See* RAVA.

Rian.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána.—*See* RAYAN.

Riási.—Fort and town in Kashmír State, Punjab. Lat. 33° 5′ N., long. 74° 52′ E.; lies on the left bank of the Chenáb (Chináb), on the last slopes of the southernmost Himálayan range. Thornton states that the fort crowns a conical rock, south of the town, and consists of a rectangular enclosure, whose lofty stone walls rose sheer from the steeply escarped sides of the hills, with a bomb-proof tower at each angle. Two large tanks supply the garrison with water. A deep ravine separates the fort from a sandstone eminence of equal height, about a mile distant.

Ridhpur.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar.—*See* RITPUR.

Rikheswar.—Cantonment in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. *See* LOHAGHAT.

Rintimbur.—Fort in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 2′ N., long. 76° 30′ E.; situated on an isolated rock, the summit of which is surrounded by a massive stone wall, strengthened by towers and bastions. Within the enclosure, says Thornton, are an ancient palace, the residence of the Governor; a mosque, with the tomb of a reputed Muhammadan saint; and barracks for the garrison. East of the fortress is the town, connected with it by a long flight of steps. Rintimbur was besieged without success in 1291 by Jalál-ud-dín, the Khilji King of Delhi; in 1299, by the Wazír of Allahábád; and shortly afterwards captured by Alá-ud-dín, who put the garrison, with the Rájá and his family, to the sword. The fort was subsequently wrested from the sovereign of Delhi; and in 1516, is mentioned as belonging to Málwá. After the expulsion of Muhammad Sháh from Delhi by Humáyun in 1553, it surrendered to the Rájá of Bundí, who transferred it later on to Akbar. It probably fell into the hands of the Rájá of Jáipur on the decay of the Empire, in the middle of the 17th century.

Rioti.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 7700. Stands on an upland plain, 6 miles south of the Gogra, and 16 miles north-east of Ballia. Agricultural centre.

Riotipur.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 50′ 15″ N., long. 84° 25′ E.; pop. (1872), 9323. Lies on the alluvial lowlands, 1 mile south of the southern branch of the Ganges, and 8 miles east of Gházípur town.

Rípu.—One of the Dwárs or lowland tracts forming the Eastern Dwárs Subdivision of Goálpára District, Assam. Area, 242 square miles; pop. (1870), 2645; forest area, 65·05 square miles; area under cultivation, 3·42 square miles. In 1870, the land was settled with the cultivators direct for a term of seven years.

Rishikund.—Hot spring in Monghyr District, Bengal. It has been made a place of worship; and a reservoir has been built to collect the water into one pool, which is about 140 feet square, and, on the side most remote from the sources, overgrown with aquatic plants. The

bottom of the pool is partly sandy, partly rocky; and the air-bubbles rise from the surface over a space of about 30 feet wide and 140 feet long. Where the air-bubbles issue from among sand, they form a small cavity like a crater. When Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton visited this spring he found, in the month of April, that the thermometer in the air stood at 72° F.; in the water where it issued from the crevice of a rock, it rose to 110°; and in one of the craters, to 114°. A fair is held at Rishikund once in three years. It is of no great importance, there being seldom more than 2000 people present.

Risod.—Chief town of a *parganá* in Basím District, Berar; originally known as *Rishi-wut-kshetr*, or 'The place of all the Rishis.' Lat. 19° 58′ 30″ N., long. 76° 51′ E.; pop. (1867), 4716. Place of some commercial activity. In 1858-59, a plundering party of Rohillás, being brought to bay by a detachment of the Haidarábád (Hyderábád) Contingent at the walled village of Chichamba, near Risod, resisted an infantry attack. This was the last fight of the kind in Berar.

Ritpur.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar; 20 miles east of Ellichpur town. Lat. 21° 14′ N., long. 77° 52′ E.; pop. (1867), 2450. Once a place of importance, having been the *tankha jágír* of Salábat Khán. The stone wall which surrounded the town fifty years ago has almost entirely disappeared. It is said to have then had 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom deserted it owing to the oppression of Bisenchand *tálukdár* in the time of Námdár Khán. Ritpur is the chief seat of the sect known as Mánbhán, founded by Kishen Bhat about two hundred years ago. He married out of his caste, and his four sons formed a new order, into which any person might enter. Its members are professed celibates, but this rule is by no means rigidly observed. Both men and women shave all hair from the head, and wear a black waistcloth, forming a kind of skirt, to show that, having devoted themselves to religion, they in their worldly conduct no longer recognise any distinction as to sex. They bury their dead. Krishna Bhat, the founder of this sect, is said to have obtained a magic cap, by wearing which he assumed the likeness of Krishna. This cap was at last forcibly taken from him, and burnt. The principal buildings of interest are Rámchandra's temple, the Mánbhán building, called Ráj Math, and the Government school. Good water is scarce at Ritpur, the people obtaining their drinking water from Lalá's well.

Riwari.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* REWARI.

Robartsganj.—Southern *tahsíl* of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of the Son valley, with the Singrauli plateau, and comprising the most varied and picturesque scenery in the District. Area, 2632 square miles, of which 1973 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 173,540; land revenue, £6820; total Government revenue, £7368; rental paid by cultivators, £22,837.

Rohilkhand. — A Division or Commissionership in the North-Western Provinces, comprising the six Districts of BIJNAUR (Bijnor), MORADABAD, BUDAUN, BARELI (Bareilly), SHAHJAHANPUR, and the TARAI, each of which see separately; the Division being, according to the arrangement of this work, dealt with under the Districts. Area of Rohilkhand Division, 11,805 square miles; pop. (1872), 5,436,314. Lat. 27° 35′ to 30° 1′ N., long. 78° 1′ to 80° 26′ E.—For the history of Rohilkhand, the country of the Rohillá Afgháns, see BARELI (Bareilly) and MORADABAD DISTRICTS.

Rohisala.—One of the petty States of Undsárviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £310; tribute of £10 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rohna.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 32′ 30″ N., long. 78° 25′ E.; 23 miles west by north of Wardhá town. Pop. (1870), 2565, chiefly cultivators. The stream by the town has been embanked to avert floods, and a well-attended market is held every Tuesday in the dry bed and on the bank. A considerable fair also takes place yearly at the end of January. The fort was built about a century ago by Krishnají Sindhia, who held the town rent free from the Haidarábád and Bhonslá Governments, in consideration of maintaining 200 horsemen. Rohna has a village school, and in the neighbourhood are gardens of opium, sugar-cane, and spices.

Rohri (or, as written by the natives, *Lohri*).—A Sub-District forming part of Shikárpur Collectorate, Sind, lying between 27° 7′ and 28° 32′ N. lat., and between 68° 52′ and 70° 15′ E. long. Area, 4258 square miles; population (1872), 217,515 souls. Bounded on the north and west by the Indus, on the north-east and east by the States of Baháwalpur and Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere), and on the south by Khairpur. Head-quarters at ROHRI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The Sub-District consists mainly of a desert known as the Registán, constituting a portion of the vast plain of Shikárpur. It is broken by sandhills, which are often bold in outline, and fairly wooded. A small limestone range in the south-west of the Sub-District runs from near Rohri town due north and south into Khairpur. The Indus is supposed to have once flowed past these hills near the ancient town of Aror, and to have been diverted into its present channel through the Bakhar Hills by some great natural convulsion. The Ren Nálá, said to be the bed of an old branch of the Indus, is found in the Registán. The principal canals in Rohri are—the EASTERN NARA, 13 miles long and 156 feet wide at its mouth, with strong sluice-gates, but in its course towards the south cut up into numerous small streams, and abounding in quagmires and quicksands: the Lúndi, 16 miles long; Aror, 16 miles; Dahr, 26 miles; Masú, 32

miles; Korái, 23 miles; Maháro, 37 miles; Dengro, 16 miles. There are 57 *zamíndárí* canals, offshoots of the Government works. The *dandhs* are—the Dahri, 20 miles long; the Garwar, 10 miles; the Kadirpur, 12 miles; the Changhan, 20 miles. The forests of Rohri cover an area of 90 square miles; the most important trees are the *pípal*, *ním*, *ber*, *siras*, *tali*, *bahan*, and *kandi*. The bush jungle consists for the most part of tamarisk. Game is abundant.

Population.—The total population of Rohri Sub-District in 1872 was returned at 217,515, of whom 176,789 were Muhammadans, 37,917 Hindus, 1853 Bhíls, 134 Síkhs, and 822 'others.' The number of persons per square mile is 51. The inhabitants of the Registán are a strong, active, and temperate race. The chief towns are ROHRI and GHOTKI. Eight fairs are held in the Sub-District, 5 in the Rohri, and 3 in the Ghotki *táluk*, with an attendance varying from 400 to 20,000 people. The towns of Rohri, Ghotki, Mírpur, and Ubauro contain travellers' bungalows. The principal antiquities are the ruined town and fort of AROR, and the old stronghold of Mathelo, which is situated on rising ground about 45 miles north-east of Rohri, and is said to have been founded by a Rájput about 1400 years ago. About 2½ miles from Rohri are the ruins of an ancient town called Hakrah, built on the extremity of a rocky hill, which appears to have been gradually covered by the mud from the flood-waters of the Indus, that even now flow over the spot.

Agriculture.—Two crops are raised in Rohri, viz.—the *kharíf*, sown between March and July, and reaped between July and December, which includes cotton, *joár*, *bájra*, indigo, rice, oil-seeds, vegetables, etc.; and the *rabí*, sown between November and March, and reaped in March and April, comprising wheat, gram, *dhaniya* (coriander), tobacco, and barley. *Joár* and *bájra* form the staple articles of food. Of the total area of the Sub-District, in 1872, 194,824 acres were under cultivation. Fruits and vegetables are extensively grown. Irrigation is carried on by means of canals, which have already been enumerated. The floods, or *léts*, as they are called, during the inundation of the Indus are also a source of fertility; but when excessive, they cause great destruction to land and crops. Protective embankments have been erected in several villages. The fiscal settlement of the Sub-District was begun in 1856-57, but not completed till 1871-72. The average rate per acre assessed on cultivable land is R. 1. 12. (or 3s. 6d.) in the Rohri and Mírpur *táluks*, Rs. 2. 4. (or 4s. 6d.) in both Saidpur and Ubauro, and Rs. 2. 10. (or 3s. 3d.) in Ghotki. The principal tenure is the *maurasi*, by which the tenants possess a right of occupancy. The *zamíndárí* system also prevails to some extent. Land is held in *jágír* in every *táluk*, but the largest area is found in that of Rohri, viz. 31,000 acres. In connection with the *jágírs* must be mentioned the

Sayyids of Bakhar and Rohri, who have held lands in gift in this Sub-District from about 1290 A.D. Grants of land were also made to them in 1712, by Jahándar Sháh. The conditions on which the Sayyids held their territory seem to have been (1) to pray for their imperial masters, and (2) to guard the country from marauders. The privileges of the Sayyids were confirmed by the Kalhora sovereigns, but Mír Sohráb Khán Tálpur altered their land assessments and remissions into a fourth share of the revenue alienated to the grantees. Since 1854, no changes have been made in the general condition of the Sayyids, who in 1872 numbered about twelve persons.

Manufactures, etc.—Pottery, coarse cloth, lime, salt, and saltpetre are the chief manufactures of the Sub-District. The annual quantity of lime made is estimated at 100,000 *maunds*, or about 3660 tons. The annual out-turn of saltpetre at Aror is 1300 *maunds*, or about 47 tons. The towns of Ghotki and Khairpur Dharki are noted for their manufacture of pipe-bowls, scissors, and cooking-pots. The most important exports from Rohri are grain, fuller's earth, salt, lime, oil, wool, fruits, silk cloth, and indigo. The imports are wheat, sugar, tobacco, *ghí*, metals, cotton cloth, and shoes. The Sub-District also carries on a considerable transit trade in grain, sugar, molasses, wool, wine, iron bars and pots, and cotton. The total length of roads is 400 miles. The main trunk road is that which connects Haidarábád with Múltán (Mooltan). There are 21 ferries in Rohri Sub-District, of which 13 are on the Indus and 8 on the Nárá. The main postal line runs from Rohri and Ubauro to Sabzalkot in Baháwalpur and thence to Múltán, 204 miles distant.

Revenue.—The imperial revenue in 1873-74 amounted to £37,966, of which £33,827 was derived from the land tax, £929 from excise, £1092 from stamps, £481 from salt, £325 from fines and fees, and £593 from miscellaneous sources. The local revenue was £3915, furnished by cesses on land and *sayer* revenue, fisheries, cattle pound and ferry funds. The gross revenue was therefore £41,881. There is no special civil officer in the Sub-District, but the civil jurisdiction of the subordinate court of Sukkur extends over the 5 *táluks* of Rohri. The Sub-District is administered by a Deputy Collector with full magisterial powers. The total number of police is 270, or 1 policeman to every 806 of the population. In 1873-74, there were 28 Government schools, with 1491 pupils. There is one school for girls, viz. at Rohri town. The Sub-District contains two municipalities, ROHRI and GHOTKI; their aggregate receipts in 1873-74 amounted to £1781, and their expenditure to £1434.

Climate.—The transition from the hot to the cold season is very sudden in Rohri. The rainfall registered in 1874 was 14·62 inches. The prevalent diseases are fevers, ague, rheumatism, and dysentery.

Rohri.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind; situated in lat. 27° 42' N., and long. 68° 56' E., upon the right bank of the Indus, on a rocky eminence of limestone interspersed with flints. It is said to have been founded by Sayyid Rukandin Sháh in 1297. The rocky site of Rohri is terminated abruptly on the western side by a precipice 40 feet high, rising from the bank of the river, which during the inundation season attains a height of about 16 feet above its lowest level. On the northern side of the town is the mouth of the NARA (EASTERN) channel (*q.v.*), 156 feet wide, which is provided with powerful sluice-gates to regulate the supply of water, as required, from the Indus. Rohri, when seen from a little distance, has a striking and pleasing appearance, the houses being lofty, frequently four and five storeys high, with flat roofs surrounded by balustrades; some are of burnt brick, erected many years ago by wealthy merchants belonging to the place. But the streets are in several parts very narrow, and the air close and unwholesome. Rohri has road communication with Mírpur, Kandár, and Sangrár, and the main trunk road from Haidarábád to Múltán also passes through it. The chief public buildings of the place are the *múkhtiárkár's* court, municipal commissioner's office, dispensary, police station, travellers' rest-house, Government schools, post office, and cattle pound. The police force for the protection of the town numbers 31 men, of whom 23 are foot, rural and District police, and the remainder mounted on either horses or camels. Rohri has a large number of Muhammadan places of worship. One, known as the Jamá Masjíd, was built in 1564 by Fateh Khán, a lieutenant of the Emperor Akbar; it is a massive but gloomy pile of red brick, covered with three domes, and coated with glazed porcelain tiles. The other, the Idgah Masjíd, was erected in 1593 by Mír Musan Sháh. The War Mubárak, a building about 25 feet square, situated to the north of the town, was erected about 1545 by Mír Muhammad, the reigning Kalhora prince, for the reception of a hair from the beard of Muhammad. This hair, to which miraculous properties are ascribed by the faithful, is set in amber, which again is enclosed in a gold case studded with rubies and emeralds, the gift of Mír Alí Murád of Khairpur. The relic is exposed to view every March, when the hair is made by some mechanical process to rise and fall, a fact which the devotees are led to believe proceeds from supernatural agency. Rohri possesses a municipality, established in 1855, and the town has, in consequence, been greatly improved both as regards health and appearance. The population, according to the Census of 1872, was found to be 8580, of whom 4766 were Hindus, and the remainder Musalmáns. The former, who are mostly of the Bania caste, are engaged in trade, banking and money-broking, while the Muhammadans are chiefly of the Kázi, Sayyid, Bhuta, Kori, Patoli, Muhána, Khati, Memon, Shaikh,

and Shikári tribes. The trade is principally in grain, oil, *ghí*, salt, fuller's earth, lime, and fruits. *Tasar* silk is manufactured, as well as gold and silver bracelets, and other ornaments. Paper of an indifferent quality is also made here, but, as a whole, the manufactures are unimportant. Opposite to Rohri on the Indus is the small island of Khwája Khizr, containing the shrine of a saint who is reverenced alike by Muhammadans and Hindus.

Rohtak.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 28° 19′ and 29° 17′ N. lat., and between 76° 17′ and 77° 30′ E. long. Area (1868), 1823 square miles, but according to the Parliamentary Abstract (1878), 1811 square miles; population in 1868, 536,959. Rohtak is a District of the Hissár Division. It is bounded on the north by Karnál, on the east by the Native State of Dujána and by Delhi District, on the south by Gurgáon, and on the west by Hissár and the Native State of Jínd (Jhínd). The administrative headquarters are at the town of ROHTAK, on the main road from Delhi to Hissár.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Rohtak lies in the midst of the level table-land separating the Jumna (Jamuná) and Sutlej (Satlaj) valleys, and is one of the few Punjab Districts which nowhere abuts on any one of the great rivers. Its surface is one unbroken plain, consisting of a hard clay, copiously interspersed with light yellow sand, and covered in its wild state by a jungle of scrubby brushwood. Towards the south-west, the proportion of sand increases as the plain approaches the confines of the desert; but in the remainder of the District, cultivation has probably reached its utmost limit. Eastward, the land falls gradually towards the Delhi frontier, becoming low and swampy in the neighbourhood of the Najafgarh *jhíl*, a marshy lake which forms the only natural reservoir for the drainage of the District. The *jhíl* itself lies within the boundaries of DELHI, but the Sahibi, a little *nála* flowing from the Ajmere (Ajmír) Hills, traverses a corner of Rohtak, and is the solitary stream of which the District can boast. During the rainy season, it throws off numerous smaller water-courses, which irrigate and occasionally flood the surrounding country. The Rohtak and Butána branches of the Western Jumna Canal supply water to the northern *parganás*, but the greater portion of the central plain is entirely dependent upon the uncertain rainfall. So absolutely level is the surface, that rain sinks in as it falls; and it is only by artificial means that the water can be enticed into the tanks which have been rudely excavated in the neighbourhood of every village. Their origin is of immemorial antiquity, and their pleasant fringe of trees and brushwood forms a characteristic feature in the otherwise monotonous landscape. The only exception to the general flatness is to be found on a part of the Gurgáon boundary, where a few low slaty

hills crop up above the barren and sandy levels of the south-western angle. Game is plentiful, including wild pig, deer, and hare. Pea-fowl, partridge, and small birds are to be met with throughout the year; and during the cold season, wild geese, bustards, and flamingoes swell the list. Wolves are still common, and a stray leopard is occasionally killed.

History.—Rohtak was formerly included within the undefined boundaries of the region which bore the name of Hariána. The town of Mahím appears to have been its most important centre in early years, and is said to have been destroyed by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, but restored in 1266. Little can be ascertained, however, with reference to its annals before the year 1718, when the whole of Hariána was granted by the Emperor Farrukhsiyyár to his minister, Rukhan-ud-daulá. The courtier made over his title in turn to a Baluch noble, Faujdár Khán, who was created Nawáb of Farrukhnagar in 1732. The Nawáb's dominions embraced the present Districts of Hissár and Rohtak, besides part of Gurgáon and a considerable region since annexed by the Síkh chieftains of Jínd and Patiála. Faujdár Khán handed down his possessions to his son, who held them with varying fortunes till his death in 1760. That date coincides with the final collapse of the decaying empire, being the year in which Alamgír was murdered, and the titular Emperor Sháh Alam ascended the throne of Delhi. His rule hardly extended beyond the city walls, and a period of anarchy set in. The next year saw the crushing defeat of the Marhattás at Pánípat, after which the Síkh adventurers began to change their policy from mere predatory incursions to conquest and settlement. The new Nawáb of Farrukhnagar found his title from the first purely nominal; and in 1762, he was driven from his capital by the Ját leader, Jawáhar Sinh of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore). For the next twenty years, Hariána passed through the usual vicissitudes of Upper India in this anarchic time: now the Nawáb recovered for a time his hereditary dominions; now Najaf Khán bestowed them on one of his followers; and now again the husband of Begam Sumru of Sardhána (Walter Reinhardt) held part of them in fief. The Marhattás in 1785 put a stop for a while to these disorders; but even Sindhia was not able to repel the Síkh invasions, and in the end he was compelled to settle large portions of Hariána on the Síkh rulers of Kaithal and Jínd. Meanwhile, the military adventurer George Thomas had carved out a principality for himself from the remainder, and fortified his position in two strongholds at Georgegarh near Jhajjar, and Hánsi in the District of Hissár. In 1802, the Marhattás, under their French generals, succeeded in ousting Thomas; but the conquests of Lord Lake, a year later, laid the whole country, up to the Sutlej and the Siwáliks, at the feet of the British Government. In fact, however, the supremacy of the Marhattás west of the Jumna, in its upper course, had been little more than nominal; and some

time elapsed before any practical measures were taken in the cis-Sutlej and Hariána regions. The northern *parganás* of Rohtak were held by the Síkh chiefs of Jínd and Kaithal, while the south was claimed by the Pathán Nawáb of Jhajjar. All these petty princes were confirmed in their holdings, and only the central portion of the modern District was directly retained by the British Government. This was for a while entrusted to the native Governors (Názims) of Hariána; but the frequent incursions of Síkh and Bhatti marauders compelled the despatch of an English officer in 1810, to bring the region into better organization. The few *parganás* thus subjected to British rule formed the nucleus of the present District. Other fringes of territory became escheated on the deaths of the Kaithal Rájá in 1818, and the chieftain of Jínd in 1820. In the last-named year, Hissár and Sirsa were separated from Rohtak; and in 1824, the District of Pánípat (now Karnál) was erected into a separate charge. Up to the year 1832, Rohtak was administered by a Political Agent under the Resident at Delhi; but it was then brought under the General Regulations, and annexed to the North-Western Provinces. On the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, Rohtak was for a time completely lost to the British Government. The Muhammadan tribes united with their brethren in Gurgáon and Hissár, and began a wild predatory movement under the Nawábs of Farrukhnagar, Jhajjar, and Bahádargarh, and the Bhatti chieftains of Sírsa and Hissár. They attacked and plundered the civil station at Rohtak, destroying every record of administration. But before the fall of Delhi, a force of Punjab levies was brought across the Sutlej, and order was restored with little difficulty. The rebel Nawábs of Jhajjar and Bahádargarh were captured and tried. The former was executed at Delhi, while his neighbour and relative escaped with a sentence of exile to Lahore. Their estates were confiscated, part of them being temporarily erected into a new District of Jhajjar, while other portions were assigned to the Rájás of Jínd, Patiála, and Nábha, as rewards for their services during the Mutiny. Rohtak District was transferred to the Punjab Government; and in 1860, Jhajjar was broken up, part of it being added to the territory of the loyal Rájás, and the remainder united with Rohtak.

Population.—The territorial changes which followed so fast during the middle of the present century, make it impossible to give any accurate comparative statement of the population at different periods; but by adding and subtracting the official returns for the various fluctuating *parganás* at either date, I find an increase on the constant portion, between 1846 and 1868, amounting to 61 per cent. So great an advance in little more than twenty years is scarcely credible; yet we must allow a very rapid rate of growth, as the more accurate figures of the enumerations taken in 1853 and 1868 show an increase of 20 per

cent. in fifteen years, which may be accepted as approximately correct. The only Census, however, which gives the actual number of inhabitants in the District as at present constituted is that of 1868, which disclosed a total population of 536,959 persons, inhabiting 504 villages or townships and 138,717 houses, spread over an area of 1823·21 square miles. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 294; villages per square mile, 0·28; houses per square mile, 76·08; persons per village, 1065; persons per house, 3·87. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 292,389; females, 244,570: proportion of males in total population, 54·45 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years — males, 99,440; females, 82,733; total children, 182,173, or 33·92 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Rohtak is essentially a Hindu District, as many as 456,229 persons, or 84·97 per cent., being adherents of the ancestral faith. The Muhammadans here sink to 71,118 persons, or 13·24 per cent. Only 257 Síkhs are recorded, belonging chiefly to the ruling families. The residue of 9355 are returned as 'others,' the vast majority of them being Jains, who are more numerous in Rohtak than in any other District of the Punjab; they yield in the aggregate a proportion of 1·74 per cent. As regards ethnical distinctions, the Bráhmans number 55,206 persons, most of whom are engaged in agriculture, an occupation which they follow with much indolence and thriftlessness. The Rájputs amount to 7212 Hindus and 17,302 Musalmáns. Like their neighbours, the Bhattis of Hissár and Sírsa, they still retain somewhat of the cattle-lifting reputation which they earned during the long anarchy of the Síkh and Marhattá struggle. The trading classes are represented by 30,831 Banias, a large number of whom profess the Jain creed. The majority of the people belong to the inferior castes, amongst which the Játs rank by far the first, forming more than one-third of the whole population. They are returned at 186,046 Hindus, and 1458 converted to Islám. The Játs keep up their usual reputation for painstaking agriculture; they are divided into two principal clans, which entertain towards one another a singular animosity. There is also a considerable sprinkling of Gújars (2909), Patháns (5521), and Baluchis (2225). The District is noticeable for the very small number of minor villages, and the large proportion of towns with a population exceeding 5000. In 1868, there were 13 so returned—namely, ROHTAK (14,153), JHAJJAR (12,617), BERI (9723), MAJRA (7908), BAHADURGARH (7259), GOHANA (7124), MAHIM (6768), BUTANA (6197), KALANAUR (5646), BARODA (5124), SANGHI (5117), MANDLANA (5109), and SISRANA (5051). These figures show a total of 97,796 persons, or 18·21 per cent. of the inhabitants; but they cannot be considered to represent the urban as opposed to the rural popula-

tion, since many of the above-named places are rather overgrown villages than towns strictly so called. As there were also 152 villages containing a population of more than 1000, the tendency for the agricultural body to aggregate in considerable clusters is very marked, and may perhaps be set down to the general insecurity of the country during the century which preceded the British occupation. In 1868, 290,184 persons were returned as engaged in agriculture, and 246,775 as otherwise employed. Urdu and Hindí are the languages in common use.

Agriculture.—Almost all the available land in the District is already under cultivation, the returns in 1869 showing a total of 905,600 acres of tillage, with a narrow margin of 139,942 acres of cultivable waste. In the central and southern *parganás*, where the peasant is entirely dependent upon the rainfall for his water supply, barley and gram form the staple spring crops, while *joár*, *bájra*, and cotton are the mainstays of the autumn harvest; but in the canal-irrigated villages to the north and east, wheat is added to the list in spring, and rice or sugar-cane in autumn. The total area under each crop in 1872-73 was as follows:—*Rabí*—wheat, 126,252 acres; barley, 112,241 acres; gram, 122,057 acres: *Kharíf*—*joár*, 251,231 acres; *bájra*, 216,995 acres; cotton, 49,412 acres; and sugar-cane, 10,927 acres. Irrigation is chiefly confined to the canal system, the depth of water below the surface being generally too great to permit the profitable working of wells. The total area irrigated in 1868-69 amounted to 146,993 acres, of which 122,038 were supplied from Government works and 24,955 from private sources. The use of manure is on the increase, and the villagers are beginning to appreciate the value of a rotation of crops. Yet the District authorities are of opinion that cultivation has almost reached its highest point, and the land is reported to be in a condition of gradual impoverishment. The growth of cotton and hemp is increasing; and in the central *parganás*, rice is pushing *bájra* out of the field. The average out-turn per acre is as follows:—Wheat, 905 lbs.; inferior grains, 400 lbs.; cotton, 126 lbs.; rice, 583 lbs. The mode of tenure known as *bháyácharа*, or brotherhood, is the most common. In parts of the District, several villages are banded together by custom into an organized cluster (or *tappa*), owning the supremacy of one chief (or *tappadári*) village. The *tappa* includes all the communities immediately surrounding the central and supreme village, without distinction of race or caste; and the league is thus in all probability a relic of some defensive arrangement, concerted during the period of Síkh and Bhatti incursions. In many villages, local custom subjects the non-cultivating classes to a tax (called *kamíni*) in favour of the proprietors. By far the greater part of the soil is cultivated by tenants-at-will. Rents rule as follows, according to the nature of the crop which the soil is fitted to

produce :—Cotton lands, from 6s. to £1 per acre ; sugar-cane lands, from 8s. 9d. to £2 per acre ; wheat lands, irrigated, from 4s. to £1 ; dry, from 2s. to 10s. per acre ; other grains, dry land, from 1s. to 6s. per acre. Wages have risen of late years, the change being attributed to the emigration of labourers (principally Chamárs), to find employment on the railway and the Sirhind Canal. Skilled workmen in towns are paid at the rate of 7½d. per diem, and unskilled workmen receive from 3d. to 4½d. Agricultural labourers are generally paid in cash ; as much as 4½d. per diem, with food, is sometimes given at harvest-time. In canal villages, labourers take their wages in kind, receiving one-third of the crop. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873 :—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt. ; gram, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt. ; *joár*, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4¾d. per cwt. ; *bájra*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10¾d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Rohtak, like its neighbour Hissár, suffers greatly from drought. Two-thirds of its area is entirely dependent on the rainfall, and scarcity from this cause pressed upon the District in 1824, 1830, 1832, and 1837. The severe famine of 1860-61 taxed the people to their utmost endurance ; and the season of 1868-69 was one of the most disastrous on record. Two successive crops, both of grain and fodder, had failed in the dry southern plain, and distress began to show itself early in 1868. Relief measures were at once adopted, and the total number of persons who received gratuitous assistance during the month of January 1869 amounted to 150,102. Famine works were also undertaken, and continued until August. Fears were at one time entertained for the succeeding autumn and spring harvests, but rain happily fell in time to save the District from such an aggravation of its misfortunes. The loss of cattle added to the misfortunes of the cultivating classes. Out of 350,100 head in the District, as many as 88,300, or more than 25 per cent., perished from starvation or disease.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Rohtak is a purely agricultural District, whose produce hardly more than suffices for its home consumption. A small surplus of grain, cotton, and other raw materials is exported to Delhi, Meerut, and Sahăranpur ; while piece-goods, spices, iron, sugar, salt, and timber are imported in exchange. Trade is carried on both at permanent markets and religious fairs. There are no manufactures of more than local importance, with the exception of ornamental turbans at Rohtak and saddlery at Kalánaur. Pretty pottery is made at Jhajjar, and cotton cloth for home use is woven in large quantities. The District had 52 miles of metalled and 507½ miles of unmetalled road in 1873, but it has no other means of communication ; there is no railway, and the canal is not navigable in this part of its course.

Administration.—The imperial revenue from the District amounted in 1872-73 to £93,310, of which £89,184, or 95 per cent., was derived

from the land tax. There was also a local revenue of £7438, besides certain provincial dues which are not collected by separate Districts. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsíldars*, and their subordinates. There were 11 civil and revenue courts in Rohtak in 1872-73. The imperial police numbered 383 men of all grades in 1871-72, besides 124 municipal constables, and 15 special policemen in two punitive posts. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 522 men, or 1 policeman to every 3·49 square miles of the area and to every 1028 of the population. The necessity for a special village watch is superseded in this District by a local custom, in accordance with which all the able-bodied men of each community take their turn as watchmen by lot. The watch is relieved at midnight, and the duty is efficiently performed without expense to the villagers. The total number of persons brought to trial upon all charges in 1872 amounted to 1849. There is only one jail in the District, the average daily number of prisoners in which amounted to 188 in 1872; the total jail population being 586. Education is slowly progressing. In 1872-73, there were 2852 children receiving instruction, at a total cost to Government of £1701. The District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls*, with an aggregate of 501 villages and 74,032 proprietors or shareholders. There are 3 municipalities, viz. Rohtak, Beri, and Jhajjar; but a municipal income is also realized at Bahádargarh, Kharkhoda, Gohána, Mahím, Asoda, and Mandhoti. The aggregate revenue of the first five of these towns amounted in 1871-72 to £2400, being at the rate of 1s. 0¼d. per head of their population.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Rohtak is considered healthy, except in the northern portions, where percolation from the canal produces malaria, and generates the same fevers and spleen complaints that are so common under similar circumstances in the adjoining District of Karnál. Small-pox also exists in an endemic form. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1872 was 7883, or 15 per thousand of the population; but these figures are doubtless considerably below the truth. The total rainfall in the District was 13·2 inches in 1866-67, 24·3 inches in 1867-68, 10·2 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 18·7 inches in 1869-70, 15·7 inches in 1870-71, 15·5 inches in 1871-72, and 26·4 inches in 1872-73.

Rohtak.—Western *tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab; consisting of a sandy and almost waterless plain. Pop. (1868), 162,244; persons per square mile, 276.

Rohtak.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and headquarters of the District and *tahsíl*. Lat. 28° 54′ N., long. 76° 38′ E.; pop. (1868), 14,153, consisting of 8208 Hindus, 5808 Muhammadans, 116 Síkhs, and 21 Christians. Lies 42 miles north-west of Delhi, on

the Hissár road. Dates from a remote antiquity, but little can now be recovered of its early history. The ancient site, known as Khokra-kot, lies a small distance north of the modern town. Rebuilt, according to one tradition, in the time of Prithwi Ráj (1160 A.D.); according to another, as early as the middle of the 4th century. During the stormy period which succeeded the decay of the Mughal Empire, Rohtak fell into the hands of one chieftain after another. Became in 1824 the headquarters of a British District. Centre of local trade; small commercial importance outside its own neighbourhood. Manufacture of cloth turbans. Court-house, police station, *tahsíli*, church, *dák* bungalow, post office, school-house, dispensary, public gardens. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £522, or 8¼d. per head of the population (15,025) within municipal limits.

Rohtang.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Himálayan ranges. Lat. 32° 22′ 20″ N., long. 77° 17′ 20″ E. The pass lies between Koksár in Lahúl and Palchán in Kullu. A made road runs over it, practicable for laden mules and ponies. The crest has an elevation of only 13,000 feet above the sea—very much lower than that of most neighbouring passes. The range on either side rises to a height of 16,000 feet, while several peaks within 12 miles exceed 20,000 feet. The main road from Sultánpur and Kángra to Leh and Yárkand crosses this pass, and then proceeds by the valley of the Bhága to the Bára Lácha, whence it descends into Ladákh. The Rohtang has been crossed in December, but becomes dangerous from the beginning of October.

Rohtásgarh.—Hill fort in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 37′ 30″ N., long. 83° 55′ 50″ E. The principal place of interest in the District from an antiquarian point of view; deriving its name from Rohitáswa, son of Harischandra, a Hindu king of the Solar dynasty, whose image was worshipped on this spot till destroyed by Aurangzeb. Little is known concerning the persons who held the fort from Harischandra's time until 1539, the year of its capture by Sher Sháh, who immediately began to strengthen the works, but soon after selected a more favourable site at SHERGARH. Mán Sinh, Akbar's Viceroy of Bengal and Behar, at the end of the 16th century, chose Rohtás as his stronghold; and two inscriptions in Sanskrit and Persian attribute to him all the buildings now existing. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the tableland of Rohtásgarh, about 4 miles from east to west and 5 miles from north to south, with a circumference of nearly 28 miles. In 1848, Dr. Hooker ascertained its precise elevation to be 1490 feet. Much of the area is bare rock, but there is also a large quantity of red soil. The hill is accessible by 83 paths, of which four are called the great *ghát*s, and the rest *ghátis*. The principal antiquities of Rohtásgarh are—two temples, said to have been built by Mán Sinh, one of which is

covered by a dome surpassing in lightness all the Hindu works that Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton had ever seen; a small mosque, ascribed to Aurangzeb; the palace or *mahál sarái*, with the building known as the *bará dwári* or twelve gates, where business was transacted. All these edifices are fully described in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 209-212. There is another famous Rohtas fort on the skirts of the Salt Range, in the Punjab. (*See* under ROTAS, the spelling fixed by the Punjab Government.)

Rojhan.—Municipal town in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 17′ N., long. 68° 19′ E.; pop. (1868), 5656, consisting of 1269 Hindus, 4319 Muhammadans, and 68 Síkhs. Situated upon the west bank of the Indus, below Derá Ghází Khán. Capital of the Mazári Baluchis, having been founded by Bahrám Khán, Tumándár or chief of that tribe, about 1825. The present chief has built a fine court-house for his own use as honorary magistrate, and a mosque and handsome tomb in memory of his father and nephew. Manufacture of woollen rugs and nose-bags for horses. Municipal revenue in 1871-72, £128, or 5½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Rokha Jáis.—*Parganá* and town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh.—*See* JAIS.

Ro-kywon.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (West) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2244; gross revenue, £1073.

Ron.—Chief town of the Subdivision of Ron in Dhárwár District, Bombay. Lat. 15° 41′ 30″ N., long. 75° 11′ 1″ E.; 52 miles east by north of Dhárwár. Pop. (1872), 5251. Post office.

Ronáhi.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 10 miles from Faizábád town, near the bank of the Gogra. Pop. (1869), 5193, viz. 3664 Hindus and 1529 Muhammadans. Five Hindu and 3 Jain temples; *sarái;* Government school. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway and the Faizábád road pass through the town.

Roorkee.—*Tahsíl* and town in Sahåranpur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* RURKI.

Rori.—Municipal town in Sírsa District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 43′ N., long. 75° 37′ E.; pop. (1868), 2706; distant from Sírsa town 19 miles north-west. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £35.

Roshnábád.—Estate or *zamíndárí* in Tipperah District, Bengal. Area, 589 square miles, comprising 53 fiscal divisions. A permanently settled estate, belonging to the Rájá of Hill Tipperah, who pays an annual land revenue of £15,361.

Roshra.—Town in Darbhángah District, Bengal.—*See* RUSERA.

Ro-ta-rúp.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (West) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3900; gross revenue, £583. Products—rice, cotton, and bamboos.

Rotás.—Ruins in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 55′ N., long. 73° 49′ E. Famous fort, built by Sher Sháh, the Afghán prince who successfully opposed the Mughal dynasty, as a check on the Ghakkar tribes. Situated in the Salt Range, on a hill overlooking the gorge of the Kuhán Nadi, 11 miles north-west of Jhelum town. The walls extend for 3 miles, and encircle the rocks which command the entrance of the pass. Some parts have a thickness of from 30 to 40 feet. The total area enclosed by the fortifications amounts to 260 acres. One gateway still remains in excellent preservation; the rest has fallen into ruins, which form a most striking and picturesque group.

Rouk-thwa.—A stream which rises in the Poung-loung range in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. After a south-westerly course of about 30 miles, it falls into the Tsit-toung about 6 miles north of Mún, a village in Shwe-gyeng District. Navigable in the rains by boats 30 feet long as far as Eng-bhek, but during the dry season only as far as Rouk-thwa-wa village. This river forms an outlet for timber grown on the neighbouring hills.

Rudauli.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Gogra river, on the east by Mangalsi, on the south by Mawái Maholára, and on the west by Basorhi and Daryábád. Area, 173 square miles, or 111,102 acres, of which 73,316 acres are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 120,902, viz. 94,861 Hindus and 26,041 Muhammadans. Of the 196 villages comprising the *parganá*, 86 are held in *tálukdárí*, 70 in *zamíndárí*, and 40 in *pattidárí* tenure. Seven market villages; 9 village schools; post office; police station, with 2 outposts.

Rudauli.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh, and headquarters of Rudauli *parganá;* situated 37 miles south-east of the civil station, in lat. 26° 44′ 45″ N., and long. 81° 47′ 20″ E. Its foundation is ascribed to a Bhar chief, Rudra Mall. A thriving commercial town, with daily markets, at which a brisk trade is carried on in grain, vegetables, cotton, and cloth. Pop. (1869), 11,617, viz. 6770 Musalmáns and 4847 Hindus.

Rudra Himála.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 58′ N., long. 79° 9′ E.; on the eastern frontier of Garhwál, towards Chinese Tartary. Thornton describes it as consisting of 5 huge snow-covered summits, rising above a mass of bare rocky cliffs. Elevation above sea level, estimated at 22,390 feet.

Rudra Prayág.—Temple in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Stands at the junction of the Mandákini, draining the southern slopes of the Kedárnáth and Badrináth peaks, with the ALAKNANDA. One of the five sacred *prayágs* or confluences of the Hindus, and a halting-place for pilgrims to Himáchal. A dome-shaped rock, 30 feet in height by 15 in diameter, bears the name of Bhím-ka-chalha or the

Kitchen of Bhím, a famous giant of Hindu mythology. It is completely excavated, and has apertures at the top, where Bhím used to place his cooking utensils. The temple is small, and stands by the water's edge. Elevation above sea level, 2200 feet.

Rudrapur.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 6538. Situated in lat. 26° 26′ 40″ N., and long. 83° 39′ 35″ E.; on the river Majhua, upon the Gorakhpur and Barhaj road, 23 miles south-east of Gorakhpur town. Remains of an enormous fort, said to have been erected by the early Rájput settlers in the District when threatened by the aboriginal Bhars, before the recovery of the country by the latter. (*See* GORAKHPUR DISTRICT.) Fair in February attracts about 1500 persons. Government charitable dispensary.

Rudrapur.—Village in Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 58′ N., long. 79° 26′ 40″ E.; distant from Bareli city 53 miles north, upon the Almorá road. Stands among fine mango groves. Ruined temples and tombs; malarious climate.

Rumpah.—Hill tract in Godávari District, Madras.—*See* RAMPA.

Runang.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 43′ N., long. 78° 28′ E.; lies over a range in Kunáwar, dividing the valley of Raskalang from that of Píjar. According to Thornton, the crest does not reach the limit of perpetual snow. Closed during the four coldest months, when the route runs along a circuitous and dangerous track by the side of the Sutlej. Elevation above sea level, 14,500.

Rún-tshiep.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876-77), 2052; gross revenue, £574.

Rupál.—A Native State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. The area of land under cultivation was estimated in 1875 at 21,000 *bighás;* pop. (1872), 3173. The revenue was returned at £320; and tribute of £116 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £36 to the Rájá of Edar. The chief of Rupál, Thákur Mán Sinh, is a Rehwár Rájput.

Rúpar.—North-western *tahsíl* of Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab; lying at the foot of the Simla Hills, and along the south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj).

Rúpar.—Municipal town in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 76° 33′ E.; pop. (1868), 8700, consisting of 3882 Hindus, 4482 Muhammadans, 333 Síkhs, and 3 Christians. Stands upon the south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 43 miles north of Umballa city. Town of considerable antiquity, anciently known as Rúpnagar. Occupied about 1763 by Hari Sinh, a Síkh chieftain, who seized upon a wide tract south of the Sutlej, stretching along the foot of the Himálayas. In 1792, he divided his estates between his two sons, Charrat Sinh and Dewa Sinh, the former of whom obtained Rúpar. The estates were confiscated in 1846, in consequence

of the part taken by the family during the Síkh war of the preceding year. A numerous staff of European officers resides in the town, superintending the construction of the Sirhind Canal, which will draw its waters from the Sutlej at this point. Large jail, which supplies convict labour for the works. Two important religious fairs—one Muhammadan, at the tomb of Sháh Khalíd, in the month of Jaishtha, attracting 50,000 persons; the other, a Hindu bathing festival on the banks of the Sutlej, in April, attended by an equal number of persons. Brisk exchange mart between the hills and plains; thriving trade in grain, sugar, and indigo. Imports of salt from the Salt Range, re-exported to the hills in return for iron, ginger, potatoes, turmeric, opium, and hemp. Manufacture of country cloth, iron hooks, and other hardware. Assistant Commissioner's court, *tahsíli*, police office, staging bungalow. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £795, or 1s. 6½d. per head of population (10,294) within municipal limits.

Rúpnáráyan. — River of Bengal. The name given to the DHALKISOR from the point where it receives the waters of the SILAI, a tributary which flows into it from Midnapur District. The course of the Rúpnáráyan, from where it first touches upon Húglí District to its confluence with the Húglí river opposite Húglí Point, in lat. 22° 12′ 30″ N., long. 80° 6′ 15″ E., is generally south-easterly.

At the Kailá *ghát*, its principal ferry, the Rúpnáráyan is crossed by the Midnapur High-Level Canal from Ulúbária. It is tidal as far as the limits of the Howrah portion of the District; and a heavy bore ascends as high as the mouth of the Bakshshí *khál*, the chief tributary of the Rúpnáráyan within Húglí District. The river is protected on its right bank, within Midnapur District, by a continuous embankment 29 miles 2373 feet in length; and it is also embanked all along its left bank, within Húglí District, from its junction with the Bakshshí *khál* to its union with the Húglí river. The bordering lands are more or less inundated by the spring tides in April and May, which leave behind destructive impregnations of salt, rendering them unfit for cultivation unless small defensive works are thrown up round the fields every year to keep the water out. Grass and *hógla* reeds are the ordinary produce, except in years when the rains set in and close early, when a late rice crop can be planted in September. The Rúpnáráyan is navigable throughout the year by native boats of 4 tons burden as far as Ghátál village, in Midnapur District. The river is not fordable at any season of the year within the limits of Húglí District.

Rúpnáráyan and Rasúlpur Canal.—Tidal canal in Midnapur, Bengal, extending from Rúpnáráyan to the Rasúlpur river, in the Hijili portion of the District; divided into two reaches. The first reach is called the Bánká Canal, and runs from near the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan river to the Haldí river, a distance of 8 miles: top width, 72

feet; bottom width, 62 feet; depth, 8 feet. The second section is called the Tiropkiá Canal, and runs from the Haldí to the Rasúlpur river, a length of 18 miles: top width, 92 feet; bottom width, 64 feet; depth, 8 feet. These canals were completed and opened throughout on the 1st September 1873. They are intended for navigation only; and the tolls taken during the year 1873-74 amounted to £2797, 16s., while the miscellaneous revenue was £63, 18s. The deficiency for the year, exclusive of interest, was estimated at £999, 6s.

Rúpnáth.—Village in the *parganá* of Amwí, in the Jáintia Hills, Assam, with a Hindu temple greatly frequented by pilgrims from the plains of Sylhet. In the neighbourhood are several caverns in the limestone formation, extending for a great distance beneath the earth. Out of one of these a Chinese army is fabled to have marched to the invasion of India. In another, the hanging stalactites have been carved to represent the gods of the Hindu pantheon.

Rurkhakalán.—Town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 7′ 12″ N., long. 76° 45′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5721, consisting of 1956 Hindus, 1169 Muhammadans, and 2596 Síkhs. Agricultural centre, of merely local importance.

Rúrki.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Sahåranpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying at the foot of the Siwálik Hills, along the western bank of the Ganges, and watered by the Ganges Canal. Area, 789 square miles, of which 330 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 242,696; land revenue, £27,658; total Government revenue, £30,434; rental paid by cultivators, £44,896.

Rúrki.—Modern manufacturing town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 29° 52′ 25″ N., long. 77° 55′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,778, consisting of 6925 Hindus, 3551 Muhammadans, and 302 Christians. Stands on an elevated ridge overlooking the bed of the Soláni river, 22 miles east of Saháranpur city. Before the commencement of the Ganges Canal works, a mere mud-built village on the banks of the Soláni; now a flourishing town with broad metalled roadways, meeting at right angles, and lined with excellent shops. The Ganges Canal passes east of the town, between raised embankments. Headquarters of the Ganges Canal workshops and iron foundry, established in 1845-46, much extended and improved in 1852, and employing in 1868, 1069 hands. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, founded in 1847, for instructing natives and others in practical engineering, with a view to employment upon public works, had a total of 121 students in 1871. Cantonment for native sappers and miners and for British troops. Garrison numbers about 1000 men of all ranks. Church, dispensary, police station, post office, *tahsíli*, mission school of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The low ground surrounding the town, together with the percolation from the canal,

gives rise to fever and other malarious diseases; much, however, has been done to remedy the evil. Excellent meteorological observatory.

Rusera (*Roshra*).—Municipal town in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak, just below the confluence of that river with the Bághmati, in lat. 25° 45′ 8″ N., and long. 86° 4′ 8″ E. Pop. (1872), 9168. The town contains a police station, distillery, and perhaps the largest *bázár* in the District; seat of a large trade in grain, oil-seeds, saltpetre, *ghí*, cloth, and other articles. An aided English school was established here in 1870. Roads run from Rusera to Dalsinhsarái, Nágarbasti, Tájpur, Baherá *viâ* Hátí and also *viâ* Hathauri, and to Rájghát on the Tiljúga. Before the change in the course of the Bághmati, direct water communication was open to Darbhangah all the year round. In 1876-77, the total registered traffic of Rusera was valued at £197,000. The principal exports were—oil-seeds, £100,000; tobacco, £15,000; and *ghí*, £12,000: the imports comprised food grain, £9000; salt, £49,000. The municipal revenue of Rusera in 1876-77 was £317, 8s.; rate of taxation, 6⅞d. per head of population (10,656) within municipal limits.

Rushikulya. — River in Ganjám District, Madras. Rises in the Chinna Kimidi Málíyas, in lat. 19° 55′ 20″ N., and long. 84° 20′ E., and runs south-east to Aska, where it is joined by the Mahánadi; thence south-east and east till it enters the sea at Ganjám town, in lat. 19° 22′ N., and long. 85° 7′ E. Its length is about 115 miles, the principal towns on its banks being Suradá, Aska, Purushottapur, and Ganjám. It is spanned at Aska by a fine masonry bridge of 19 arches.

Russellkonda (called after Mr. Russell, who was Commissioner here in 1835).—Town in Gumsar *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 56′ 20″ N., long. 84° 37′ 34″ E.; pop. (1871), 1658, residing in 967 houses. Situated on the river Loharákandi, about 50 miles north-west of Ganjám town. Headquarters of the Special Assistant Agent for the Hill Tracts, and of a *táluk* Magistrate. Court-houses, post office, and prison for the hill convicts. It was at one time a military cantonment, but was abandoned in December 1863.

Rustam.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* RASTAM.

Rutlam.—State and town in Central India.—*See* RATLAM.

Rwa-gún.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2108; revenue, £584.

Rwa-lwot. — Revenue circle in Bhí-lú Island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3658; capitation tax, £413, and land revenue, £404.

Rwa-thit.—Revenue circle in the Kyan-kheng township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 11,595; revenue, £1951.

Rwa-thit.—Town in the above circle; situated on the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Headquarters of the Kyan-kheng township; contains a market, court-house, police station, and a public works department inspection bungalow. Pop. (1877), 3671.

Rwa-thit.—Village in the Gnyoung-kwí circle of Henzada township and District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated 6 miles north of Henzada, in a large rice tract. Pop. (1877), 2038.

Rwa-toung.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3321; gross revenue, £782. Products—rice, sesamum, maize, and plantains.

Rwa-toung.—Town in the above township, now a suburb of ALLAN-MYO; situated in lat. 19° 19′ 20″ N., and long. 95° 18′ 45″ E., on the left bank of the Irawadi, just opposite the Thayet-myo cantonment. Seat of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. It contains a market and school; small police force. Pop. (1878), 2643.

Rwe.—One of the mouths of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), the chief river of British Burma. This creek is formed by the junction of the Pú-lú (a branch of the Myoung-mya) with the Tsaga-mya, in about lat. 16° 33′ N., and long. 95° 8′ E. Lower down, the Rwe is connected with the Pya-ma-law and the Bassein, another branch of the Irawadi, by a series of inter-communicating creeks. Its course is south-south-west, length about 60 miles. Navigable by river steamers at all seasons.

Rwe-doung.—Revenue circle in the Kan-oung township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 5802; gross revenue, £857.

Rwek-gnyo-toung.—Revenue circle in the Naaf township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3925; gross revenue, £1168.

Rwon, East.—Revenue circle in the Than-lyeng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 5723; gross revenue, £3955.

Rwon, West.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, formerly united with the above circle. Manufacture of salt. Pop. (1876-77), 4275; gross revenue, £3909.

Rwon-gnya.—Revenue circle in the Than-lweng Hlaing-bhwai township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2310; land revenue, £231, and capitation tax, £243.

Rwon-za-leng.—A river in the Tenasserim Division of British Burma, which rises to the north of the mountainous country forming the Salwín Hill Tracts. It flows nearly due south through a narrow rocky valley as far as Kaw-ka-rit, where it joins the SALWIN. With a rapid current, it is, even in dry weather, navigable only with difficulty;

and when swollen by the rains, and dashing against the rocks which impede its course, it becomes impracticable even for rafts. It derives its name from the fact of its running through a country once inhabited by the tribe of Rwon Shan, which was overrun and annexed by Aloungbhúra in the latter half of the 18th century. Many of the people were brought away captive, and settled in a tract south-east of Syriam, now known as the Rwon circle.

S

Saádatganj.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated 14 miles north-east of Bára Bánki town. Founded by Rájá Surat Sinh, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár* of the *parganá* (Rámnagar), and named after the Nawáb Saádat Alí Khán, in whose reign it was built. A clean and well-built town, with a considerable trade in grain. Pop. (1869), 2789, namely, 1630 Hindus and 1159 Muhammadans.

Sabari (*Seberi, Severi, Savari*).—River, rising in the Eastern Gháts, in the Native State of Jáipur (Jeypore), Madras; rushes through a rocky channel in a succession of rapids till it enters the Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces, within which its course for 25 miles is free from obstructions. It falls into the Godávari in lat. 17° 35′ N., and long. 81° 18′ E.

Sabáthu.—Cantonment in Simla District, Punjab.—*See* SUBATHU.

Sábhár.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Burîganga, a tributary of the Dhaleswari, in lat. 23° 50′ 55″ N., and long. 90° 17′ 10″ E. Estimated pop. in 1871, 2350. Formerly the capital of the Bhuiyá Rájá Harischandra. In 1839, the only trace that remained of his residence was a heap of bricks and earth overgrown with jungle.

Sabi.—River in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* SAHIBI.

Sachín.—A Native State within the British Political Agency of Surat, in Guzerat, Bombay. The villages constituting the State are much separated, some of them being surrounded by British territory, and others by portions of Baroda State. Sachín may, however, roughly speaking, be said to lie within the limits of the British District of Surat. It occupies an area of about 300 square miles, with a population (1872) of 18,061. Irrigation is carried on from tanks and wells. The climate is healthy, and the usual cereals are cultivated, as well as cotton and sugar-cane. Yarn and coarse cloth are manufactured.

The Nawáb of Sachín is by descent a Habshi or Abyssinian. When his ancestors first came to India is doubtful; but they were long known on the western coast as the Sidis of Dauda, Rájápur, and Janjira. They were also the admirals of the fleets of the kings of Ahmednagar and Bijápur, in the Deccan, whilst those dynasties lasted, and subse-

quently of the Mughal Emperors; being appointed to that office by Aurangzeb about the year 1660, with an annual assignment of £30,000 on the Surat revenues for their maintenance. On the decline of the Mughal Empire the Janjira Sidis became notorious pirates, plundering the ships of all nations, except the English, whose friendship they appear to have early cultivated. The Muhammadan admirals, who had their headquarters at the island of Janjira, remained chiefs of that place during the wars between Sivají and the Mughals, also during the war between the Peshwá and the British Government. During these wars different members of the family were alternately supported by either party as best suited its own interests. Towards the end of the last century, Bálu Miá Sidi, the heir to the throne of Janjirá and to the other possessions of the Sidis, had been expelled from his dominions by a younger branch of the family (1784-91). He appealed for aid to the Marhattás and British. The Peshwá, being desirous of obtaining Janjirá, an arrangement was come to in 1791, by which Bálu Miá ceded to the Peshwá Janjirá in return for Sachín. Bálu Miá duly got possession of his new State of Sachín; but when the Peshwá claimed Janjirá the Sidis who held it refused to give it up, and succeeded in maintaining their independence. Sachín remained in the hands of Bálu Miá and his descendants; while Janjirá has been, and is still, held by the younger branch of the family who had ousted Bálu Miá, the Peshwá never having been able to establish his influence. Janjirá is reckoned a maiden fortress to this day. A full account of the transactions between the British, the Peshwá, and the rival sides of Janjirá and Sachín, will be found in Aitchison's *Treaties*, vol. iv. pp. 324 *et seq.*, ed. 1876. The present (1876-77) chief of Sachín is Nawáb Sidi Abdul Kádar Muhammad Yákut Khán, a Sunni Musalmán, aged twelve years. During his minority the affairs of the State are administered by a British officer. The chief is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £15,983, and maintains a force of 62 men. The family of the chief hold a title authorizing adoption, and succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 6 schools in the State, with a total of 238 pupils.

Sachín.—Capital of Sachín State, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 3′ 40″ N., and long. 72° 59′ E., 9 miles south of Surat city.

Sadalgi.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 51 miles north of Belgáum town, and 25 south-east of Kolhápur, in lat. 16° 33′ N., and long. 74° 33′ E. Pop. (1872), 6863. A large area is cultivated with sugar-cane, and a considerable quantity of molasses is prepared here.

Sadar.—*Tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces,

lying along the west bank of the Ganges. Area, 343 square miles, of which 222 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 256,516; land revenue, £23,977; total Government revenue, £28,350; rental paid by cultivators, £39,528.

Sadáshivgad (*Sadáshivgarh*).—Port in Kánara District, Bombay; situated in lat. 14° 50′ 25″ N., and long. 74° 10′ 55″ E., on the north side of the entrance to the Kálí or Kálá river. It is little more than a village, situated between two small hills, crowned by ruined forts, which once defended the entrance of the river. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74 — imports, £1458, and exports, £6376.

Sádhaurá.—Municipal town in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 23′ N., and long. 77° 16′ E., near the hills, 26 miles east of Umballa. Pop. (1868), 11,198, consisting of 4831 Hindus, 5938 Muhammadans, and 429 Síkhs. A town of great antiquity, dating back as far as the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní, but now of no political importance. Yearly fair at shrine of Sháh Komez, a Muhammadan saint, attended by about 20,000 persons. Manufacture of coarse cloth; local trade in country produce. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £352, or 7½d. per head of population (11,179) within municipal limits.

Sadiyá.—The name formerly given to a tract of country stretching along the north bank of the Brahmaputra, on the extreme north-east frontier of Assam. The administrative headquarters were at the village of SADIYA. The present *thání* or police circle of Sadiyá, forming part of the Subdivision of Dibrugarh, in Lakhimpur District, has an area of 178 square miles; pop. (1872), 6021.

Sadiyá.—Village in Lakhimpur District, Assam; situated in lat. 27° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 95° 41′ 35″ E., on the right or north bank of the main stream of the Brahmaputra, about 100 miles above Dibrugarh. Sadiyá is the extreme north-east frontier outpost of British India, and has always been a place of much political importance. It is supposed to have been one of the first places occupied by the Ahams, when they invaded Assam from the direction of Burma. In later times, the Government of the surrounding country was administered by a viceroy of the Aham kings, with the title of Sadiyá Khoá. When the Burmese occupied Assam, this title was conferred on a chief of the aboriginal tribe of Khámtís, whose office was confirmed on the annexation of Assam by the British in 1826. The Sadiyá Khoá furnished a military contingent of 100 men, and supported himself by forced contributions. At the same time a British garrison was stationed at Sadiyá; and subsequently, in 1835, when the exactions of the Khámtí chief became intolerable, the civil administration was placed in the hands of the officer commanding the troops. In 1839, the Khámtís rose in rebellion. They cut off the outpost at

Sadiyá, and killed Major White, the commandant and Political Agent, together with the detachment of Sepoys. At this time, Sadiyá was described as an important place, with a population of 4000 souls. The *bázár* at the present time does not contain more than 20 houses. The garrison consists of 1 European officer and 122 men of the 44th Assam Native Infantry. In order to promote friendly relations with the neighbouring hill tribes of Khámtís, Mishmís, and Singphos, a fair is held annually at the time of full moon in the beginning of February. The hillmen bring down caoutchouc, wax, musk, cloth, mats, *dáos* or hill-knives, and ivory, which they exchange for cotton cloth, salt, metal utensils, silver ear-rings, beads, brass wire, and opium. In 1876, the attendance of hillmen was estimated at 3000; the value of the articles they sold at £4910, and the value of those they bought at £4447. The Deputy Commissioner of Lakhimpur is generally present at this fair, and advantage is taken of the occasion to distribute presents among the chiefs. During the rainy season, steamers can proceed up the Brahmaputra as far as Sadiyá; and it is hoped that this place may at some future day become the starting-point of a through trade between Assam and China. It is almost certain that such a trade existed in the beginning of the last century.

Sadr.—South-western *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level and arid plain, lying along the west bank of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 286 square miles, of which 236 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 201,674; land revenue, £21,322; total Government revenue, £23,987; rental paid by cultivators, £38,073.

Sadras (correctly Satranja-patana).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 31′ 25″ N., and long. 80° 12′ E. Pop. (1871), 1144, inhabiting 207 houses. Sadras first became a trading settlement by the Dutch in 1647, and was long famous for the fineness of the muslin produced by its looms. The Dutch erected, close to the shore, a brick fort of considerable extent and pretensions to strength. The ruins still remain. There are also the remains of the houses of the officials, one of which has long been in use as a halting-place for European travellers. The old Dutch cemetery is within the fort, and is still maintained in decency and order under treaty. Many of the tombstones are curious specimens of the sculptor's art. The date of the oldest is 1695. There is a Dutch church on the esplanade opposite the fort, and the Wesleyan Mission have also a small settlement here. The once bustling importance of the place has long departed. There are still a few looms, but the cunning which produced the once famous fabrics is lost. The English captured Sadras in 1795, and although it was temporarily restored to the Dutch, it has been an English possession since 1824. The Pálár river, which debouches on the sea a few miles to the south

of Sadras, has silted up, and its bar cannot be crossed by large sea-going ships. Sadras is now a petty place on the coast, with the open sea outside, and has long ceased to be a resort of maritime commerce.

Sadrpur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Biswán *tahsíl*, on the east by South Kundri *parganá*, on the south by Bára Bánki District, and on the west by Mahmúdábád *parganá*. Area, 108 square miles, or 69,087 acres, of which 50,268 acres are cultivated, 9743 cultivable, 133 rent-free, and 8943 uncultivable waste. The incidence of the land revenue demand is at the rate of 2s. 6$\frac{7}{8}$d. per acre of cultivation, 2s. 0$\frac{7}{8}$d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 10$\frac{5}{8}$d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), 54,477, namely, 47,095 Hindus and 7382 Muhammadans. The 160 villages comprising the *parganá* have been constituted into 114 demarcated *mauzás*, of which 81 are held under *tálukdárí* and 33 under *zamíndárí* tenure. Muhammadans form the principal proprietary body, owning 119 villages, Raikwárs hold 11, Seths 5, Janwár Kshattriyás 4, Panwárs 4, Kashmírí Brahmans 4. The remaining 23 are chiefly held by Káyasths. The *parganá* is a poor one, with only 2 villages containing upwards of 2000 inhabitants. No roads, no large *bázárs*, and no fairs.

Sadrpur.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sadrpur *parganá*; situated 30 miles south-east of Sítápur town, but with no road or river communication with any other place. An insignificant town of (1869) 2109 inhabitants. Village school; market twice a week.

Sadullánagar.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Utraula *parganá*, from which it is separated by the Kuwána river; on the east by Burhápára *parganá*; on the south by Manikápur *parganá*, the Bisuhi river marking the boundary line; and on the west by Gonda *parganá*. The boundary rivers are fordable every few miles, except during the rains, by men and cattle, and the more important tracks are furnished with rough bridges. Along the banks of both the rivers runs a fringe of forest, varying from 3 miles to a few hundred yards in breadth, but containing little good timber. The *sál* trees, stunted by excessive crowding, never attain sufficient size to make them of any great value; and, except the *jamún*, which is plentiful and attains a fair growth, and is of use both for building and burning, the only other tree of consequence is the *mahua*, whose flowers and fruit are leased out for the manufacture of spirits and oil, and the wood of which is largely employed in roofing the huts of the neighbouring villages. Game is not particularly plentiful. The centre of the *parganá* is a flat ugly plain, underwooded and covered with fair cultivation, alternating with tracts of the long *khar* grass. The soil is of a light dry loam. Water may be found almost anywhere at a depth of from 15 to

20 feet from the surface, and irrigation is very common both from wells and small tanks. Area, 103 square miles; cultivated area, 37,406 acres, or rather more than 56 per cent. of the whole. Of this, 22,040 acres are under *kharíf*, 24,675 under *rabí*, and 12,025 under both crops, the balance being fallow. Owing to the extent of jungle, the population is, for Oudh, sparse, numbering (1869) 35,152, or 341 to the square mile. Hindus numbered 28,221, and Musalmáns 6931.

Until quite lately, the greater part of the *parganá* was under dense jungle, the home of predatory bands of nomadic tribes; and most of the present tillage commenced with the purchase of parcels of land in *birt* from the later Rájás of Utraula. Some idea of the scantiness of the agricultural population at the commencement of the present century, when the practice of selling *birt* rights became for the first time common, may be gathered from the fact that in 1815 A.D. the Government revenue was only £69. From that time the advance becomes rapid and steady. In 1819, the demand had risen to £1331, and ten years later it reached £2406. With a few trifling variations, it remained at this amount till Rájá Darshán Sinh in 1838 raised it to £3512, a figure which was never again attained under the Native Government. Shortly before annexation, it had fallen to little over £2000; and when we took over the District, Sadullánagar was assessed on the principle of half-profits at £2408. The progress of population and agriculture since that period has been incredibly rapid, and in 1872, by a revised assessment, the Government land revenue was raised to £5607, with £152 on account of cesses. In consideration of the largeness of the enhancement, and in view of the fact that much of the recently broken land was held on long leases at progressive rents, the rise has been distributed over a period of ten years, and it is not proposed to take the full demand till 1883 A.D. Of the 112 villages comprising the *parganá*, 50 are held by *tálukdárs*, paying a revenue of £2924; while 62 villages, assessed at £2835, are settled with *zamíndárs*.

Sadullánagar.—Village in Gonda District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sadullánagar *parganá*; situated 28 miles north-east of Gonda town. Lat. 27° 5′ 45″ N., long. 82° 24′ 51″ E.; pop. (1869), 706. Founded in 1786 by Rájá Sadullá Khán of the Utraula family.

Sadullápur. — Village in Maldah District, Bengal. The chief descent or *ghát* to the holy stream of the BHAGIRATHI is at this place, to which the dead bodies of Hindus are brought from great distances to be burned. Market and small annual fair held in March, chiefly for religious purposes.

There is another village of this name, Sadullápur, on the right bank of the Chenab, in the Punjab, the scene of an indecisive action between our troops, under Thackwell, and the Síkh general Sher Sinh, in January 1849. (*Col. Yule.*)

Safed Koh (*Súféd Koh*, *Safaid Koh*).—Range of mountains in Afghánistán, thus described by Colonel C. M. MacGregor :—

'The range commences to the east of the Allah-koh ridge, between Kábul and Ghazní, and then follows 34° of latitude for about 75 miles to longitude 70° 35′, when it splits into two main ridges, one going north-east to the Khaibar and the Kábul river; the other, after a short turn to the east, continuing due east to the junction of the Kábul river with the Indus. During the first portion of its course, this range drains on the north into the Kábul river and on the south into the Kuram; and it continues to do this after its separation into two branches, though not with the same regularity, some of the easternmost drainage going direct into the Indus.

'It is often of course quite arbitrary to say where one range commences and another ends, but I think in this case it will be best to say the Safed Koh commences from a few miles west of the Shutargardan Pass, between Kuram and Logar. This being the case, the first spur which it throws out to the north is that which forms the east watershed of the Logar river, and, dividing it from the Khúrd Kábul river, ends at Bhútkhak.

'The next spur is that between the Khúrd Kábul and the Tezín rivers, over which are the Haft Kotál and Lataband Passes. This Wood calls the Karkacha range, or rather he confounds two distinct spurs in one under this name; but it may be doubted whether it would not more aptly be termed the Haft Kotál spur. Wood says that the ridge he calls the Karkacha, drains on the west into the Logar and east into the Súrkháb; but from Garden's surveys we now know this to be a mistake, there being two rivers—the Khúrd Kábul and Tezín—between the Logar and Súrkháb, which drain into the Kábul river, and which rise in the Safed Koh. Consequently it is quite an error to consider the mass of mountains between the Logar and Súrkháb one spur. After the spur between the Khúrd Kábul river and Tezín, another spur comes out from the main range, and after running north for about 30 miles to the north of Jagdalak, it then turns to the east, and, running parallel with the Kábul river, ends at the junction of the Súrkháb with that river. This spur drains into the Tezín on the west and the Súrkháb on the east, and, after its eastward bend, into the Kábul river on the north and the Súrkháb on the south.

'The other north spurs of the Safed Koh to the east are not of so marked a character, but they run between the streams which, flowing down from it, join the Súrkháb or the Kábul river; of these the principal are, commencing from the west, the Gandamak, Kárású, Chiprial, Hisárak, Kote, and Mohmand.

'The spurs on the south of this range are not of such importance as those on the north. The first is the one which runs out from the

Shutargardan Pass, and drains on the north and east into the Hazár-darakht and Haríáb streams; on the south, into another source of the Kuram. The second is the Peiwár ridge, which comes out from the Sítárám Peak and ends at the Kuram, draining into the Keria and Haríáb rivers on the west and the Peiwár on the east. Then again, to the east there are numerous short spurs, which shoot down to the south but do not reach the river, save in the form of detritus. These need not be mentioned further, and the only other spur requiring notice is the one which, coming out somewhat to the east of longitude 70° 30′, runs between the Kirmán Dára and the Kirmán stream.

'Wood places the west limit of the Safed Koh at long. 69° 36′ E., thus regarding its commencement as at very nearly the same point as I do—viz. just east of the Altimúr Pass over the Allah-koh range, in long. 69° 30′ E.

'Judging from the accounts of Wood, Bellew, and Walker, the scenery would seem to be equal in grandeur and beauty on both sides of the range; and Wood in his description of the northern side falls into an error, when he says that looking towards the summit there are successive ranges, for the main range runs east and west, and throws its spurs to the north and south. Wood says the farthest peaks are bare and irregular, the nearest covered with pine-trees, and this tallies with the graphic description given by Bellew of its south aspect.

'Col. Walker says of the range—"Its highest point is the Sítárám Mountain, 15,622 feet above the sea, whence the range preserves a tolerably uniform level, perhaps nowhere less than 12,500 feet, until it again culminates in a double-peak mountain, whose summits average 14,800 feet. I have been unable to learn the local names of these peaks, or whether, like the Sítárám Mountain, they tell of a remote antiquity, when the country was ruled by Hindus long anterior to the origin of Muhammadanism. The offshoots of this range (*i.e.* the branches east of long. 70° 30′ E.) have usually an east and west direction, and are remarkable for their parallelism with each other and with the parent range. The most important, though not the highest, of these stretches away to Attock, and is the southern boundary of the Pesháwar valley, dividing it from the system of valleys of which Kohát District is composed. Before entering British territory, it forms the southern barrier of the Tírah valley."'

Col. MacGregor says the low hills of Jalalábád (ends of the north spurs of the Safed Koh) are extremely barren, but the lofty ranges of Kund, Karkacha, and Safed Koh are richly clad with pine, almond, and other trees. The appearance, he continues, of the valleys of the Safed Koh is a mixture of orchard, field, and garden. They abound in mulberry, pomegranate, and other fruit-trees; while the banks of their streams are edged with a fine sward, enamelled with a profusion of wild flowers, and fringed by rows of weeping willows.

'It is worthy of note that the Safed Koh presents in its south aspect the same glacis slopes of shingle which were observed by Griffiths on the south slopes of the spurs of the Hindu Kúsh, and which may also be noticed on parts of the hills north of the Pesháwar valley. No mention is made by any authority of this peculiarity existing on the north of this range, or, I believe, of any other range.'

Saffrái.—Coal-measure in Sibságar District, Assam, extending along the foot of the Nágá Hills to the Dikhu river. The coal is hard and of good quality, but the difficulties of transport have hitherto proved insuperable. The total supply is estimated at 10 million tons.

Safipur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Unao District, Oudh, lying between 26° 37′ and 27° 2′ N. lat., and between 80° 6′ and 80° 30′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Bílgrám and Sandíla *tahsíls* of Hardoi District, on the east by Mohán *tahsíl* of Unao, on the south by Unao *tahsíl*, and on the west by Cawnpore District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 395 square miles, of which 231 are cultivated; pop., according to the Census of 1869, 203,626, of whom 179,748 are Hindus and 23,878 Muhammadans. Number of males, 106,435; of females, 97,191; number of villages or towns, 371; average density of population, 515 per square mile. This *tahsíl* comprises the three *parganás* of Safipur, Fatehpur Chaurási, and Bángarmau.

Safipur.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sandíla *parganá* of Hardoi District, from which it is separated by the Sái river; on the east by Asíwán Rasúlábád; on the south by Pariar; and on the east by Fatehpur Chaurási. A well-wooded country. Area, 132 square miles, or 84,530 acres, divided into 137 townships. Soil, chiefly loam and clay; staple crop, barley. Government revenue, £10,836, at an average rate of 2s. 6⅝d. per acre. Pop. (1869), 72,319, viz. 62,179 Hindus and 10,140 Muhammadans. The extent of land held under the different varieties of tenure is as follows:—*Tálukdárí*, 4249 acres; *pukhtadárí*, 240 acres; *pattidárí*, 37,168 acres; *zamíndárí*, 36,181 acres; *bháyáchára*, 5531 acres; and Government villáges, 1158 acres. Four large annual fairs, at one of which 15,000 persons assemble.

Safipur (or *Sáipur*).—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 44′ 10″ N., and long. 80° 23′ 15″ E., 17 miles north-west of Unao town, on the road leading thence to Hardoi. A flourishing, well-built town, containing 89 masonry houses, 14 mosques, and 6 Hindu temples. Pop. (1869), 7286, namely, 4336 Hindus and 2950 Musalmáns. The headquarters of the Safipur *tahsíl* and *parganá*. Daily market, with sales averaging £5500 a year. Flourishing school; police station. The town is said to have been originally founded by Sái Sukal, a Bráhman, and is generally called after him, Sáipur. A religious mendicant subsequently came to the town, and was buried there, and the

name was changed to Safipur in commemoration of the holy man. Sái Sukal is said to have been defeated and killed in 1389 by Ibráhim of Jaunpur, who put his lieutenants in charge of the town, and whose descendants are the principal proprietors at the present day.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 23° 4′ and 24° 27′ N. lat., and between 78° 6′ and 79° 12′ E. long. Area, 4005 square miles; population in 1872, 527,725 persons. Bounded on the north by Lálitpur District of the North-Western Provinces and the Native States of Bijáwar, Panná, and Charkhárí; on the east by Panná and Damoh District; on the south and west by Narsinhpur District and the Native States of Bhopál and Gwalior. The administrative headquarters are at SAGAR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Ságar occupies, with that of Damoh, the high Vindhyán tableland which stretches out in the north-west corner of the Central Provinces. The scarp of the Bhánrer range, rising abruptly from the valley of the Narbada (Nerbudda), forms a natural boundary line, from which the District extends northwards in a vast plain broken here and there by hills, with a general slope towards the north-east. So, too, east of Ságar town the boundary is marked by a clear escarpment, but to the north and west no salient physical feature indicates the limits of the District. The country is for the most part covered with trap; but on the north, the Vindhyán sandstone runs down, broadening out opposite Kurái and gradually disappearing southwards; and on the east, the sandstone occupies a tract about 20 miles long and 5 broad, reaching from Garhákota to beyond Surkhí. Garhákota itself and a narrow strip of country as far south as Rehlí rest on limestone. The form of the trap hills distinguishes them at once from the inlying hills of sandstone; their vegetation is also distinct, and the teak saplings which flourish on the trap rarely grow on the sandstone. The soil in the north and east of the District is a reddish-brown alluvium. The south and centre are covered with black soil, on which wheat is grown in large quantities. But the cultivated plains are broken up by hills, rising singly or in groups, and by small ranges and plateaux, some of them covered with jungle, others stony and barren. The principal streams, the Sunár, Beas (Biás), Dhúpán, and Bíná, all flow in a northerly direction towards the valley of the Ganges. Ságar, however, contains no river of importance. Though several densely wooded tracts exist in the District, they yield no great quantity of the finer sorts of timber. The largest forest, the Ramná, a preserve to the north-east of Garhákota, covering 8 square miles, produces teak and *sáj*. Smaller forests to the south of the District, as Mohlí near Rehlí, and Tarhá Kíslí near Deorí, supply teak, *sáj*, and bamboos. Towards the north, in Sháhgarh, lie large tracts of wooded country, comprising *mahua* and *sáj*, with some

teak, and bamboos in abundance. About 2 square miles of this region form the Tigorá reserve. The mineral wealth of the District is insignificant; but iron-ore, of excellent quality, found near Hírápur, a small village in the extreme north-east, affords occupation to a few smelting furnaces of the rudest character. In many parts, also, sandstone, well suited for building purposes, abounds.

History.—The formation of Ságar into a District rests on no historical considerations. Until quite recent times, semi-independent rulers of small tracts have co-existed at various places; and while the southern half has been governed from Rehlí, the northern half has been subject to Dhámoní or Sháhgarh. Rehlí, a village situated on elevated ground about 28 miles south-east of Ságar town, appears to have been originally held by the Gonds, to whom succeeded a race of shepherds, known as Baladeos. The Baladeos first settled at Khamaria, a village a mile off, but in time they removed to Rehlí, where they built a fort. The place next passed into the hands of Rájá Chhatar Sál, the Bundelá chief of Panná, who made it over to Bájí Ráo Peshwá, in return for assistance in a war with the Subáh of Farrukhábád. The Peshwá built the fort which now exists. The town of Ságar, after a similar history, at this time formed part of the dominions of Chhatar Sál. That chieftain died in 1735; and in addition to his previous gift to the Peshwá, left him one-third of his kingdom, including Ságar town and a considerable portion of the present District. The territory thus acquired continued to be managed by agents of the Peshwá until 1818, when, on the downfall of the Peshwá's government, the southern part of Ságar District came under British rule. The country to the north appears to have belonged to the great Gond kingdom of Mandla; and Dhámoní, about 29 miles north of Ságar town, owes its origin to a scion of that line, named Surat Sá. About the end of the 16th century, Rájá Barsinh Deva, the Bundelá chief of the neighbouring State of Orchhá, defeated Surat Sá; and made Dhámoní the capital, from which he ruled the northern part of the District. His son Pahár Sinh continued in power till 1619, when the country became a portion of the Delhi Empire. During the eighty years of Muhammadan rule which followed, Garola, Kurái, and Khimlása became places of importance. A succession of five governors from Delhi administered Northern Ságar, until about 1700, at the time of the decline of the Mughal Empire, the last of them, Nawáb Gháirat Khán, was defeated by Chhatar Sál, who thus for a short time united nearly the whole of the District under one rule. Dhámoní remained under his descendants until 1802, when Umráo Sinh, Rájá of the neighbouring village of Patan, gained the fort by treachery. Six months, however, had not passed when he was himself defeated by the army of the Rájá of Nágpur, who annexed the country. In 1818, after the flight of Apá Sáhib, Dhámoní

was taken by a British force under General Marshall. Though Sháhgarh, about 40 miles north-east of Ságar, came under British rule at a later period, its history is similar to that of Dhámoní. Originally part of the Gond kingdom of Mandla, Sháhgarh also was seized by a Bundelá chieftain, Sháhman by name, who about 1650 defeated and killed Chintáman, the last Gond ruler. The line of Sháhman ended in 1798, when his descendant Khánjú was defeated by Mardan Sinh, Rájá of Garhákota. In 1842, the son of Mardan Sinh was succeeded by a nephew named Bakht Balí. This year was signalized by the outbreak known as the Bundelá insurrection. Jawáhir Sinh of Chandrapur being sued on account of decrees of the Civil Court, broke into open rebellion, and burned and plundered the towns of Khimlása, Kurái, Naraolí, Dhámoní, and Bináiká. On hearing this, Delan Sá, a Gond chief living in the south of the District, also rose, and plundered Deorí and the surrounding country. The insurrection was quelled in the following year, chiefly through the efforts of Captain Hamilton; and Lord Ellenborough broke up the administration of the Ságar and Narbada territories, and reorganized it on an entirely new footing. In 1857 occurred the great rebellion, which led to the downfall of the Rájás of Sháhgarh. In June, when the Mutiny began, the regiments stationed at Ságar were the 31st Native Infantry, commanded by Major Hampden, and the 42nd, commanded by Colonel Dalzell, with the 3rd Irregular Cavalry, and a few European gunners. The entire force was under the command of Brigadier Sage. On the 27th June, the officers, with the European artillery and residents of the station, by order of the Brigadier moved into the fort, taking all the arms they could collect, and the treasure from the District office. Shortly afterwards, the 42nd and the cavalry mutinied, and burned a good many houses, besides seizing all the treasure that had been left. The 31st, however, remained loyal, and made a demonstration against the mutineers, many of whom made off towards Sháhgarh. When the news of the rising got abroad, Mardan Sinh, Rájá of Bhánpur, took possession of the present Subdivision of Kurái; Bakht Balí, the Rájá of Sháhgarh, seized Bandá, Rehlí, and Garhákota; and Adíl Muhammad, Nawáb of Garhí Amápání, occupied Ráhatgarh. In fact, these three divided the whole District between them. For eight months, affairs remained in this state; and while the fort and town of Ságar were held by the Europeans, the whole surrounding country was in possession of the rebels. The latter never attacked the fort, and three engagements with the English forces at Ságar proved indecisive. At length, in February 1858, Sir Hugh Rose arrived with the Central India Field Force at Ráhatgarh, where, after totally defeating Adíl Muhammad, he took and partially destroyed the fort. He next defeated the troops of Mardan Sinh at Barodiá Naunagar, and having cleared the country round Ráhatgarh and Kurái, marched to Ságar. Sir

Hugh Rose then advanced to Garhákota, where he routed the followers of the Rájá of Sháhgarh, and seized the fort, in which the rebels had left a large quantity of treasure. Soon after, he met the remainder of Bakht Bali's forces at Madanpur, and defeated them with great slaughter. By the beginning of March 1858, order was re-established throughout the District. The dominions of the Rájá of Sháhgarh were confiscated, and a portion of them added to the District of Ságar. Bakht Balí gave himself up, under the amnesty, at Maraurá, and was sent as a State prisoner to Lahore.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Ságar at 498,642. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 527,725. The latest estimate of 1877 indicates a total of 554,644. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 527,725 persons, on an area of 4005 square miles, residing in 1858 villages or townships and 98,777 houses; persons per square mile, 131·77; villages per square mile, 0·46; houses per square mile, 24·66; persons per village, 284·03; persons per house, 5·35. Classified according to sex—males, 278,351, and females, 249,374. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 99,486; the female children, 88,583. Ethnical division, 1877—Europeans, 891; Eurasians, 100; aboriginal tribes, 25,699; Hindus, 486,080; Muhammadans, 24,742; Buddhists and Jains, 16,739. Thus the aboriginal tribes constitute only 4·63 per cent. of the total population, a proportion smaller than in any other District of the Central Provinces. They consist almost entirely of Gonds, 24,217 in 1872. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans in that year numbered 43,787; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Chamárs (58,851), Lodhís (42,542), Kachnís (40,156), Ahírs or Gaulis (34,545), Kurmís (23,640), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 393. The best cultivators are the Kurmís, who immigrated from the Doáb about the beginning of the 17th century, and the Lodhís, who made their way to the Vindhyán tableland during the time of Aurangzeb. Though not tall, the inhabitants of Ságar are for the most part a sturdy race. The simple white cloth made in the country forms the dress in the hot season of the poorer classes. In the cold weather, they wear a thick cotton-padded coat, reaching below the knees. The favourite colour is the green *mahuá*, more particularly in the north of the District bordering on Bundelkhand, where green is regarded as the national colour. Cloth dyed with *ál* or madder is also much worn, especially by females. In the south, the population are peaceful and tractable; but towards the north, their character undergoes a change for the worse; and the Kohris, a small caste dwelling on the borders near Native States, where they find protection if pressed by the police, share with another caste called Khangars a notoriety for

crime. The increase of the population between 1866 and 1872 is partly due to immigration from Damoh, which followed the famine of 1869. No explanation, however, can be given of the fact that Ságar contains nearly as many Buddhists and Jains as all the rest of the Central Provinces together. The prevailing language is Hindí, but Urdu is also spoken. There are only 2 towns in Ságar District with a population exceeding 5000, viz. SAGAR, the headquarters of the District (pop. 45,655), and GARHAKOTA, 9085. Townships with from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants number 57; from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 705; villages with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1094. Of the municipalities, SAGAR (pop. within municipal limits, 48,461) had an income during the year 1876-77 of £3233, of which £2883 was derived from taxation, being 1s. 2d. per head; and Garhákota (9640) had an income of £948, of which £387 was derived from taxation, being 9½d. per head. The smaller municipalities of KURAI, REHLI, and DEORI, with a total population of 14,178, had an aggregate income of £1560, of which £1113 was derived from taxation.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4005 square miles, only 1222 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 1554 are returned as cultivable; 4507 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 1½d. per acre of cultivated land, or 7½d. on the cultivable land. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, and was grown in 1876 on 441,002 acres. Other food grains occupied 209,109 acres; while 64,265 were devoted to oil-seeds, 28,384 to cotton, 15,772 to rice, and 4052 to sugar-cane. Cattle and buffaloes are bred to a large extent in the District, both for draught and carriage, and also for dairy purposes, especially the manufacture of *ghí;* and lately some bulls have been imported from Hissár and Mysore, to improve the indigenous breed. The stock of sheep is small, and insufficient even for home consumption. The Chamárs and Gonds eat flesh when they can get it, and are not particular about its condition. Wheat, barley, and *dál* form the food of the richer inhabitants; the poorer classes content themselves with *bájra*, *kodo*, *kutkí*, and often in seasons of scarcity subsist on the *mahua* and other jungle fruits. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 6927 proprietors, of whom 2783 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 51,862, of whom 17,423 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 34,439 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land in 1876 are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 3s.; inferior grain, 1s. 6d.; oil-seeds, 2s. 1½d.; cotton, 2s. 9d.; rice, 4s.; sugar-cane, 8s. 3d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 4s. 3d.; linseed, 7s. 8d.; cotton, 46s.; rice, 7s.; sugar (*gúr*), 13s. 4d. The wages per diem for skilled labour averaged 9d.; for unskilled labour, 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—Ságar is not the seat of any important manufacture. Large cattle fairs are held weekly at Kurái, and once a year at Garhákota. The other principal fairs take place at Bhápel, Pandalpur, and Rangír. The iron-ore, smelted near Hírápur, goes principally to Cawnpore; but the chief export of the District consists of grain supplied to the markets of Bhopál, Gwalior, and Bundelkhand. Principal imports—sugar and *kirána*, or grocery, from Mírzápur; and English cloth and piece-goods from Mírzápur, and from Bombay by way of Hoshangábád. The town of Ságar is the entrepôt of the salt trade with Rájputana. The salt is brought by Banjáras from the Pachbhadra salt marshes in Jodhpur and from the salt lake at SAMBHAR, and is exported by the Ságar merchants to Jabalpur, Rewah, Narsinhpur, and Bundelkhand. In 1877, 50 miles of made roads within the District were returned as of the 'first' class, 63 of the 'second,' and 21 of the 'third' class. The main lines of communication are—the road from Jabalpur to Ságar, and thence *viâ* Ráhatgarh towards Indore, with travellers' bungalows at Ságar and Ráhatgarh; the road from Gwalior *viâ* Jhánsí and Lálitpur to Ságar, and thence towards Narsinhpur, with a travellers' bungalow at Málthon; the road from Ságar in a north-easterly direction towards Cawnpore, with a travellers' bungalow at Sháhgarh; and the road from Ságar in a north-westerly direction to Sironj in Sindhia's territory, and Mhow *viâ* Kurái. None of these roads is bridged and metalled throughout. A road to connect Ságar with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, having Karelí as its terminus, and crossing the Narbada (Nerbudda) at the Birmán Ghat, is still under construction. The District has no means of communication by water.

Administration.—In 1861, Ságar was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £69,196, of which the land yielded £44,060. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £6416: number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 9; magistrates, 16: maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 28 miles; average distance, 26 miles: number of police, 598, being 1 policeman to every 5·4 square miles and every 706 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 183, of which 23 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £1052. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 88, attended by 4657 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Through the greater part of the District the climate is considered moderate. Average temperature in the shade in 1876 at the civil station—May, highest reading 110° F., lowest, 76° F.; July, highest 103° F., lowest 69° F.; December, highest 83° F., lowest 51° F. The rainfall was an average one, between 49 and 50 inches.

Storms are rarely of such severity as to injure the crops. The prevalent disease of the District is an intermittent fever, which comes on after the rains, especially during the month of October. Bowel complaints also cause many deaths. In 1876, nine charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 30,247 in-door and out-door patients. The reported death-rate amounted to 33·59 per thousand of the population.

Ságar (*Saugor*). — The central *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, lying between 23° 5′ and 23° 56′ N. lat., and between 78° 37′ and 79° 21′ E. long. Pop. (1872), 190,980; area, 1067 square miles; number of villages or townships, 501, and of houses, 34,748.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—Principal town and headquarters of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 49′ 50″ N., long. 78° 48′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 45,655. Ságar stands 1940 feet above sea level, on the N.W. borders of a fine lake nearly a mile broad, from which it derives its name. The lake is said to be an ancient Banjára work, but the present city is only about two centuries old, and owes its rise to a Bundelá Rájá, who built a small fort on the site of the present structure in 1660 A.D., and founded a village called Parkotá, now a quarter of the modern town. Ságar was next held by Chhatar Sál, and formed part of the territory left by him on his death to his ally the Peshwá. Govind Pandit was appointed by the Peshwá to administer the country; and his descendants continued to manage it till shortly before it was ceded to the British Government by Peshwá Bájí Ráo in 1818. During this period, the town was twice plundered by the Nawáb of Tonk and his army, and again by Sindhia in 1804. During the Mutiny of 1857, the town and fort were held by the English for eight months, during which the whole of the surrounding country was in possession of the rebels, until the arrival of Sir Hugh Rose. The town is well built, with wide streets; and the large bathing *ghâts* on the banks of the lake, for the most part surrounded with Hindu temples, add much to its appearance. Ságar is the entrepôt of the salt trade with Rájputána, and carries on a large trade with Mírzápur, importing sugar and *kiràna*, or grocery, besides English cloth. The existing fort was completed by the Marhattás about a century ago. It stands on a height north-west of the lake, commanding the whole of the city and surrounding country, and consists of 20 round towers, varying from 20 to 40 feet in height, connected by thick curtain walls. It encloses a space of 6 acres, for the most part covered with old Marhattá buildings two storeys high. The British Government have constructed a magazine, a large building now used for medical stores, and a barrack for the European guard. The only entrance is on the east side. In 1820, a large building was erected for a mint, about a mile east of the lake, where 400 men were employed in coining; but after ten or twelve years, the business was

transferred to Calcutta. The building is now used as the office of the Customs Department. Other edifices of importance are a large castellated jail, capable of containing 500 prisoners, situated about half a mile east of the lake, and built in 1846 at a cost of £5000; the Deputy Commissioner's Court, on a hill overlooking the city and lake, built about 1820; the Sessions Court-house, a little to the north, built in 1863 at a cost of £500; and the city *kotwáli* or station-house, under the western walls of the fort, built in 1856. Ságar has a high school, now affiliated to the Calcutta University, established about 1828 by Captain James Paton, of the Bengal Artillery, with the assistance of Ráo Krishna Ráo, a Marhattá gentleman, and a vernacular middle-class school; several indigenous schools, and a girls' school. In 1862, an unhealthy swamp lying north-east of the lake, which cut off the quarter called Gopálganj from the rest of the city, was converted into a large garden, with numerous drives and a piece of ornamental water, at a cost of £3000. The civil station begins with the mint, about a mile east of the lake, and extends northwards for a mile, till joined by the military cantonments, which extend in a north-easterly direction for 2½ miles, with the church in the centre. Before the Mutiny, the cantonments were exclusively garrisoned by Native troops, with a detail of European artillery. Since then, however, a European regiment and two batteries of European artillery, with a Native regiment of cavalry and one of infantry, have been stationed at Ságar. The fort contains a large magazine, and depôt of medical stores.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—Island at the mouth of the Húglí river, Bengal. Lat. 21° 35′ 30″ to 21° 56′ 30″ N., long. 88° 4′ 30″ to 88° 14′ E. A great fair is held on the island in the beginning of January, to which an immense gathering of pilgrims from all parts of India, but especially from Bengal, resort to wash away their sins in the waters of the holy stream. The religious ceremonies last for three days, but the fair is continued for a longer period; and an extensive trade is carried on in articles brought from Calcutta, mats from Eastern Bengal, and stoneware platters and cups principally from Chutiá Nágpur. At other times the island is very sparsely inhabited, though it is said to have been once well peopled. A writer in the *Calcutta Review* even asserts that 'two years before the foundation of Calcutta it contained a population of 200,000 persons, who in one night, in 1688, were swept away by an inundation.' Ságar Island is now covered with dense jungle, and infested by tigers and other wild beasts. Many attempts have been made to cultivate it, but with small success. The Board of Revenue tried in 1813 to lease it to natives, but the attempt failed, and the island was subsequently taken over by an association composed of Europeans and natives, rent free for thirty years, and at a quit-rent of 1s. 6d. per acre thereafter. Previous to this, the island had been surveyed (1812) and

found to contain 143,265 acres of dry land. Sub-leases were afterwards granted to several persons, but their efforts to clear the land were ineffectual. Salt manufacture was conducted on the island for some time, but has been discontinued. The only building of any importance in Ságar Island—except the temple dedicated to Kapilmuni, to which the pilgrims repair on the occasion of the great bathing festival —is the lighthouse, which was commenced in 1808. The Meteorological Department has an observatory at the telegraph station on the south-west extremity of the island. The telegraph station lies below high-water mark, and is protected by a strong dike. The average rainfall for the four years ending 1871 was 87·61 inches. The cyclone of 1864 caused enormous destruction and loss of life on Ságar Island. The storm wave, 11 feet above the level of the land, swept over the island with resistless force. At first it was reported that 90 per cent. of the population had perished, but it was afterwards ascertained that 1488 persons survived on the island out of a population, before the cyclone, of 5625.

Ságar.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore. Area, 621 square miles, of which 47 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 60,231, of whom 54,917 were Hindus, 1671 Muhammadans, 3542 Jains, and 101 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), £14,800, or 10s. 2d. per cultivated acre. This *táluk* occupies the most westerly portion of Mysore, broken by the spurs of the Gháts, and in parts only 8 miles distant from the sea. A great part of the area is overgrown with heavy timber-trees, interspersed with grassy glades, amid which wander herds of bison and wild elephant. Products—areca-nut, rice, pepper, and cardamoms.

Ságar.—Municipal town in Shimoga District, Mysore; situated in lat. 14° 9′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 4′ 20″ E., on the left bank of the Varada river, 40 miles west-north-west of Shimoga town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 1740; municipal revenue (1874-75), £328; rate of taxation, 3s. 9d. per head. A centre of the areca-nut trade, and the residence of some wealthy merchants. Areca-nut, pepper, sandal-wood, and products of the highlands are exchanged for cotton cloth and other articles from the seaboard.

Sagrí.—*Tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the river Gogra. Area, 451 square miles, of which 216 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 249,552; land revenue, £24,946; total Government revenue, £27,457; rental paid by cultivators, £63,807.

Sagrwha.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 5643.

Sahárapur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 34′ 45″ and 30° 21′ 20″ N. lat., and between 77° 9′ and 78° 14′ 45″ E. long. Area, 2219

square miles; population in 1872, 884,017 souls. Sahāranpur is a District in the Meerut (Mírath) Division. It is bounded on the north by the Siwálik Hills, which separate it from Dehra Dún; on the east by the Ganges; on the south by the District of Muzaffarnagar; and on the west by the river Jumna (Jamuná). The administrative headquarters are at SAHARANPUR CITY.

Physical Aspects.—Saháranpur forms the most northerly portion of the Doáb or alluvial tableland which stretches between the valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna. The Siwálik Hills rise above it on the northern frontier. Their slopes are rugged and abrupt, pierced by numerous passes, many of whose gorges have never yet been explored, and crowned by jagged summits which often assume the most fantastic shapes. At their base stretches a wild submontane tract, overgrown with forest or jungle, and intersected by innumerable mountain torrents, which leap foaming down from the hills on their way to join the great channels of the Jumna and the Ganges. The two main arterial streams themselves descend into the plain through wild and magnificent ravines, which rapidly give way to high banks of clay, as the rivers pass from the mountain region into the level tableland below. South of the intermediate forest belt lies the general plain of the Doáb, an elevated upland tract, in whose friable soil the great rivers have cut themselves wide and shifting courses, at a depth of some 60 feet below the general surface. The broad valleys thus excavated are naturally well watered and fertile; but the great central plateau lies high and dry, with a general elevation of 900 feet above the sea, while numberless small ravines drain off its scanty moisture towards the low land on either side. The highest cultivation has, nevertheless, been rendered possible throughout the District by two splendid engineering achievements, the Ganges and the Eastern Jumna Canals (*qq. v.*), both of which take their origin within the boundaries of Saháranpur. The latter work was originally planned and in part executed by Alí Mardan Khán, the celebrated minister of Sháh Jahán, but it was not finally completed till the year 1830. The difficulties attending the upper part seem to have been beyond the resources of Musalmán engineering, and the canal is believed to have never flowed beyond one season until its reconstruction by the British under Sir P. Cautley, R.E. Colonel Colvin believes that 'the task of maintaining the passage across the mountain torrents at its head was found to be so great, that the canal was abandoned (by its native projectors) almost as soon as formed, and that the repeated attempts at reparation afterwards were only efficient for a season, and were overcome by the increasing difficulties.' The Eastern Jumna canal, as it now exists, is entirely a work of British engineering. The Ganges Canal was opened in 1855. Both these canals run through the whole length of the District, from north to south, and have

converted large portions of its central plateau into stretches of unbroken cultivation. The District is everywhere thickly studded with flourishing villages and populous towns. The waste lands are small in amount, except in the hilly northern region; and cultivation is spreading on every side, under the fostering influence of peaceful Government, and the successful issue of the irrigation schemes. The general aspect of the country is indicative of steady progress and comparative wealth, though the land is still capable of bearing a considerable increase of population without undue pressure on its resources.

History.—The portion of the Doáb in which Sahàranpur is situated was probably one of the first regions of Upper India occupied by the Aryan colonists as they spread eastward from their original settlement in the Punjab. But the legends of the *Mahábhárata* centre around the city of Hastínapur, in the neighbouring District of MEERUT; and it is not till the 14th century of our era that we learn any historical details with regard to Saháranpur itself. The town was founded in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, about the year 1340 A.D., and derived its name from a Musalmán saint, Sháh Haran Chishti, whose shrine is still an object of attraction to Muhammadan devotees. At the close of the century, we learn that the surrounding country was exposed to the ravages of Timur, who passed through it on his return from the sack of Delhi, and subjected the Hindu inhabitants to all the usual horrors of a Mughal invasion. In the year 1414, the tract was conferred by Sultán Sayyid Khizr Khán on Sayyid Salím; and in 1526, Bábar marched across it on his way to Pánipat. A few Mughal colonies still trace their origin to his followers. A year later, the town of Gangoh was founded by the zealous missionary Abdul Kaddús, whose efforts were the means of converting to the faith of Islám many of his Rájput and Gújar neighbours. His descendants ruled the District until the reign of Akbar, and were very influential in strengthening the Musalmán element by their constant zeal in proselytizing. During the Augustan age of the Mughal Empire, Saháranpur was a favourite summer resort of the court and the nobles, who were attracted alike by the coolness of its climate and the facilities which it offered for sport. The famous empress Núr Mahál, the consort of Jahángír, had a palace in the village which still perpetuates her memory by its name of Núrnagar; and under Sháh Jahán, the royal hunting seat of Bádsháh Mahál was erected by Alí Mardan Khán, the projector of the Eastern Jumna Canal. Unhappily the canal was permitted to fall into disuse during the long and disastrous decline of the Mughal power, and it was never of much practical utility until the establishment of British rule. After the death of Aurangzeb, this region suffered, like the rest of Upper India, from the constant inroads of warlike tribes and the domestic feuds of its own princes. The first

incursion of the Síkhs took place in 1709, under the weakening hold of Bahádur Sháh; and for eight successive years their wild hordes kept pouring ceaselessly into the Doáb, repulsed time after time, yet ever returning in greater numbers, to massacre the hated Muhammadans and turn their territory into a wilderness. The Síkhs did not even confine their barbarities to their Musalmán foes, but murdered and pillaged the Hindu community with equal violence. In 1716, however, the Mughal court mustered strength enough to repel the invaders for a time; and it was not until the utter decay of all authority that the Síkhs once more appeared upon the scene. Meanwhile the Upper Doáb passed into the hands of the Sayyid brothers of Bárha, whose rule was more intimately connected with the neighbouring District of MUZAFFARNAGAR. On their fall in 1721, their possessions were conferred upon various favourites in turn, until in 1754 they were granted by Ahmad Sháh Duráni to Najíb Khán, a Rohillá leader, as a reward for his services at the battle of Kotila. This energetic ruler made the best of his advantages, and before his death (1770), had extended his dominions to the north of the Siwáliks on one side, and as far south as Meerut on the other. But the end of his rule was disturbed by incursions of the two great aggressive races from opposite quarters, the Síkhs and the Marhattás.. Najíb Khán handed down his authority to his son, Zábita Khán, who at first revolted from the feeble court of Delhi; but on being conquered by Marhattá aid, was glad to receive back his fief through the kind offices of his former enemies, then supreme in the councils of the Empire. During the remainder of his life, Zábita Khán was continually engaged in repelling the attacks of the Síkhs, who could never forgive him for his reconciliation with the imperial party. Under his son, Ghulám Kádir (1785), the District enjoyed comparative tranquillity. The Síkhs were firmly held in check, and a strong government was established over the native chieftains. But upon the death of its last Rohillá prince, who was mutilated and killed by Sindhia in 1788, the country fell into the hands of the Marhattás, and remained in their possession until the British conquest. Their rule was very precarious, owing to the perpetual raids made by the Síkhs; and they were at one time compelled to call in the aid of George Thomas, the daring military adventurer who afterwards established an independent government in Hariána. Indeed, the internal quarrels of this confused period are too complicated for brief narration, and it must suffice to say that the country remained practically in the hands of the Síkhs, who levied black-mail under the pretence of collecting revenue. After the fall of ALIGARH and the capture of Delhi (1803), a British force was despatched to reduce Saháranpur. Here, for a time, a double warfare was kept up against the Marhattás on one side and the Síkhs on the other. The latter were defeated in the indecisive battle of Charáon (24th November

1804), but still continued their irregular raids for some years. Organization, however, was quietly pushed forward, and the District enjoyed a short season of comparative tranquillity, until the death of the largest landowner, Rám Dáyal Sinh, in 1813. The resumption of his immense estates gave rise to a Gújar revolt, which was put down before it had assumed very serious dimensions. A more dangerous disturbance took place in 1824; a confederacy on a large scale was planned among the native chiefs, and a rising of the whole Doáb might have occurred had not the premature eagerness of the rebels disclosed their design. As it was, the revolt was only suppressed by a sanguinary battle, which ended in the total defeat of the insurgents and the fall of their ringleaders. From that period till the Mutiny, no events of importance disturbed the quiet course of civil administration in Saháranpur. News of the rising at MEERUT was received early in May 1857, and the European women and children were immediately despatched to the hills. Measures were taken for the defence of the officers, and a garrison of European civil servants established themselves in the Magistrate's house. The District soon broke out into irregular rebellion; but the turbulent spirit was shown rather in the form of internecine quarrels amongst the native leaders than of any settled opposition to British government. Old feuds sprang up anew; villages returned to their ancient enmities; bankers were robbed, and money-lenders pillaged; yet the local officers continued to exercise many of their functions, and to punish the chief offenders by ordinary legal process. On the 2nd of June, a portion of the Native infantry at Saháranpur mutinied and fired upon their officers, but without effect. Shortly after, a small body of Gúrkhas arrived, by whose assistance order was partially restored. As early as December 1857, it was found practicable to proceed with the regular assessment of the District, and the natives appeared to be civil and respectful. In fact, the mutiny in Saháranpur was merely an outbreak of the old predatory anarchy, which had not yet been extirpated by our industrial *régime*, and there was little indication of any popular aversion to British rule.

Population.—The earliest Census, which gives the population of the District with its present area, was that of 1853; the number of inhabitants then amounted to 801,325, or 370 to the square mile. By 1865, the population had increased to 869,176, or 389 to the square mile. In 1872, the enumeration disclosed a further increase to 884,017 persons, or 399 to the square mile. At the same date, there were 1736 villages, or an average of 0·8 village to the square mile and 509 inhabitants to each village. The native population was thus classified according to sex—males, 484,508; females, 399,274: proportion of males, 54·8 per cent. The preponderance of males is chiefly due to the former prevalence of infanticide, a practice which all the vigilance of

the Government has not yet been able entirely to check. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 200,078; females, 154,103; total children, 354,181, or 42·32 per cent. In the religious division of the people, 604,422 were returned as Hindus, and 279,015 as Musalmáns; there is thus about one Muhammadan to every two Hindus, the exact percentages being 31·6 and 68·4 respectively; Christians and 'others' numbered 345. Amongst the Hindus, the Census of 1872 returns 45,148 as Bráhmans. The Rájputs are reckoned at 27,420, of whom only 10,564 are females. They are suspected of infanticide, and in many villages the provisions of the Infanticide Act are strictly enforced. In physique, the Rájputs are a fine hardy race, but their lawless and turbulent spirit has given much trouble. The Banias or trading classes were returned at 36,694, amongst whom the Agarwálas form by far the largest subdivision. But the great mass of the population belongs to the classes enumerated in the Census returns as 'other castes.' Of these, there were 495,160 persons in 1872. The most numerous of them were the Chamárs, reckoned at 158,859. Next in number come the Gújars, a race of supposed Tartar origin, almost peculiar to the northern Doáb, who are returned at 53,576. They are a turbulent race, addicted to cattle-lifting. The Musalmáns are partly descendants of the various early invaders, partly native converts from Hinduism. Amongst the former, the Sayyids, Mughals, and Patháns are the most numerous. Those of Hindu origin still retain many of their old practices and prejudices, while their trade-classes are assuming the rigid character of castes. The religious opinions of the people have been much shaken by the influences of civilisation, but Christianity has made little progress amongst them, nor does the faith of Islám now gain many converts. There were 9 towns at the last Census with a population (1872) exceeding 5000, namely—LANDHAURA, 5118; AMBAHTA, 6336; RURKI, 7588; RAMPUR, 8464; JAWALAPUR, 9665; MANGLAUR, 10,206; GANGOH, 10,899; DEOBAND, 21,714; and SAHARANPUR, 44,119. The total urban population accordingly amounted in 1872 to 124,099. HARDWAR, on the Ganges, is a place of great sanctity, and is largely frequented for the bathing festivals. In 1872, 312,846 persons were returned as engaged in agriculture, and 570,936 as otherwise employed. The language in ordinary use is Urdu.

Agriculture.—The *rabí* or spring harvest is sown in October, and reaped in March; and the *kharíf* or rain harvest is sown in June, and gathered in October. The chief spring products are wheat and barley (284,309 acres in 1872), pulses (59,055 acres), and oil-seeds (49,064 acres). The staples of the rain crops are rice (86,731 acres), *joár* and *bájra* (71,447 acres), and vegetables. The cultivation of cotton was carried on very largely during the prevalence of high prices caused by

the American war; but in 1872, the area under cotton had shrunk to 46,178 acres. Indigo, on the contrary, has been grown in greater quantities since the introduction of canal irrigation has rendered its out-turn less precarious than formerly. Cereals are, however, the principal products of the total cultivated area. The irrigation system of the District is very fully developed, chiefly through the agency of the two great canals. In 1870, out of a total cultivated area amounting to 736,873 acres, 162,317 acres were irrigated; and of these, 84,404 acres, or more than one-half, were watered from canals alone. The condition of the peasantry is comfortable; but many of the Musalmán proprietors, in their disdain of personal toil, have carried subdivision of shares to such an excess that they have sunk into a position more impecunious than that of the labouring class. Until lately, the non-proprietary cultivators held their lands by customary tenure, at low fixed rates, which were not liable to enhancement; but the *zamíndárs* have now begun to exercise their legal right of raising the rent, and the labourers are fast losing their customary privileges. Rents are still to a great extent payable in kind; in 1870, 66 per cent. of the tenants paid in cash. The best lands bring in from 10s. 6d. to 12s. an acre, the poorest are let at from 3s. 9d. to 4s. 6d.; average rates, from 7s. 6d. to 9s. Many estates have been transferred to new proprietors since the Mutiny; and, unfortunately, in a large number of cases they have fallen into the hands of money-lenders, who are usually absentees, and make very indifferent landlords. Wages have risen about 60 per cent. during the past ten years, owing to the large demand for labour on the canals and railway and at the Rúrki workshops. In 1874, bricklayers and carpenters received from 7½d. to 9d. per diem; blacksmiths, 7½d.; common labourers, from 2¼d. to 3d. The ordinary prices of food grains in 1870 were as follows:—Wheat, 17 *sers* the rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 25 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 5¾d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 8¾d. per cwt.; gram, 20½ *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 5¾d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The capricious rainfall in the mountain tract to the north often causes sudden floods on the Ganges and the Jumna, yet inundations of importance seldom occur. Villages, however, are sometimes transferred from one bank to the other by shifting of the channel, as many as 330 being liable to fluvial action in some one or other of its forms. Drought visits the District with great severity; famines due to this cause having occurred in 1837, in 1860, and in 1868-69. On the last occasion, almost all the autumn crops were lost, except in the irrigated region, the area of which exceptionally increased by 40,995 acres. In July and August 1869, the price of *joár* and *bájra* rose as high as 8 *sers* the rupee, or 14s. per cwt. Relief measures were undertaken early in that year, and for 77 days an average of 2948 persons were employed upon famine works, while 161 persons received

gratuitous aid at poorhouses. These figures show that the distress was not nearly so severe as in neighbouring Districts. The opening of the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway, during the scarcity, contributed to allay the danger of starvation. The spread of irrigation has done much to secure Sahāranpur from the extremity of famine in future years; while, as regards communications, it compares favourably with any District in the North-Western Provinces.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of Sahāranpur is chiefly confined to its raw materials, and especially to food grains, in which it possesses a thriving and increasing trade. Its manufactures consist of coarse cloth, jewellery, and sweetmeats. The Rúrki workshops, under Government control, employ 1069 hands, and brought in a net revenue of £5960 in 1870. Among the articles produced are steam-engines, pumps, printing presses, lathes, and mathematical instruments. Besides its direct value as a source of income, this establishment is of great importance as a training school for native artisans. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, also situated at Rúrki, is a most useful institution; in 1871, no fewer than 112 students qualified for the public service. A botanical garden was established at the town of Sahāranpur in 1817, and has proved eminently successful, both from a scientific point of view and in the practical work of naturalizing useful plants and trees, especially tea and cinchona. The District is well supplied with means of communication. The grand trunk line of the Delhi and Punjab Railway runs for a distance of 41 miles within its boundaries, with stations at Deoband, Sahāranpur, and Sarsáwa. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway will form a junction with the Punjab line at Sahāranpur. There are also several excellent metalled roads, one of which leads by a tunnelled passage to Dehra. Much traffic passes by the Ganges Canal. The Thomason College contains an English printing press, and there is one native lithographic press in the District.

Administration.—In 1806, the land revenue amounted to £33,522; in 1850, it had risen to £105,844; and in 1872, it had reached the sum of £117,295. The increase is due in part to the benefits derived from canal irrigation. The other principal items of revenue are stamps, excise, income tax, and canal dues. The District is under the civil jurisdiction of the *munsífs* of Sahāranpur and Deoband, from both of whom appeals lie to the Judge of Sahāranpur. In 1874, there were 10 stipendiary and 3 honorary magistrates, most of whom were also charged with fiscal duties. The District contained 10 civil and 4 magisterial courts in 1870. The regular police in 1873 numbered 843 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 2·64 square miles and every 1048 inhabitants. The cost was £9537, of which sum £7139 were defrayed from provincial revenue. The regular force was supplemented by 1624 village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), or 1 to every 447 inhabitants.

In the same year, 1483 persons were convicted for all offences, being 1 person in every 595 of the population. Sahāranpur contains one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 216 in 1870, or 0·025 per cent. of the population. The Muhammadan prisoners numbered 231, and the Hindus, 447. The cost per inmate was £4, 12s. 5½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner were 14s. 2¾d. Education has been spreading slowly of late years. In 1860, there were 399 schools, with 5639 pupils, taught at a cost of £1559. In 1871, the number of schools had fallen to 381; but these had a total roll of 7934 children, while the sum expended on education had risen to £3674. There is an excellent school in connection with the American Presbyterian Mission, and the towns of Deoband and Sahāranpur are noted for their superior Arabic and Persian schools. The District is divided into 4 *tahsíls* and 15 *parganás*, which contained 1916 estates in 1872, owned by 3875 registered proprietors or coparceners. Each estate paid an average revenue of £61, 4s., and each proprietor an average of £30, 4s. The District contains three municipalities, SAHARANPUR, DEOBAND, and HARDWAR Union. In 1875-76, their aggregate revenue amounted to £10,648, and their expenditure to £9584. The average incidence of municipal taxation was 1s. 8⅞d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sahāranpur is the same as that of the Doáb generally, modified by its northern position and the cool breezes from the neighbouring hill country. The cold weather arrives earlier and lasts longer than in the lower Districts, but the summer months are tropical in their excessive heat. The mean temperature in 1872 was as follows:—January, 57° F.; February, 59° F.; March, 73° F.; April, 81°; May, 88° F.; June, 90° F.; July, 83° F.; August, 83° F.; September, 81° F.; October, 75° F.; November, 66° F.; December, 59° F. The total rainfall was 49·4 inches in 1867-68; 20·2 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity); 21·6 in 1869-70; and 40·1 in 1870-71. Fever and small-pox are the principal diseases of the District. The reported death-rate in 1873 was 23·81 per thousand.

Sahāranpur.—North-western *tahsíl* of Sahāranpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Siwálik Hills and the river Jumna (Jamuná); watered by the Eastern Jumna Canal, and traversed by the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway. Area, 618 square miles, of which 328 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 253,371; land revenue, £33,151; total Government revenue, £36,565; rental paid by cultivators, £53,924.

Sahāranpur.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Sahāranpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 58′ 15″ N., and long. 77° 35′ 15″ E., on a low site on both sides of the Damaula Nadí. Pop. (1872), 43,844, consisting of 19,528 Hindus,

24,296 Muhammadans, and 20 Christians and 'others.' Station on the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway. Well-built town, with many brick houses. The principal market-place is a busy spot. Mission of the American Presbyterian Church. Important Government botanical gardens, which have proved useful in promoting the acclimatization of valuable plants. Dispensary, schools, post office, telegraph office, jail, police station. Headquarters of Jumna Canal establishment. Old Rohillá fort, used as a court-house. Handsome new mosque, lately erected by the Muhammadan community, who form a very influential body, and include several Wahábís. English church, consecrated 1858. Hotel and travellers' bungalow near the railway station. Point of departure from rail for passengers to Mussooree (Masúri), who crowd the town at the beginning and end of the hot season. Principal station in the trigonometrical survey of the Himálayas. Elevation above sea level, 902 feet. Malarious diseases prevail, owing to the neighbourhood of a swamp; but draining operations conducted in 1870 have greatly lessened the evil. Considerable trade in grain, sugar, molasses, and country cloth. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5486; from taxes, £4867, or 2s. 1¾d. per head of population (45,051) within municipal limits.

Saháspur (*Sahispur*).—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 7′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 40′ 15″ E., on the Moradábád and Hardwár road, 28 miles south-east of Bijnaur town. Pop. (1872), 6309.

Saháswán.—*Tahsíl* and town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAHISWAN.

Sahāwar.—Town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5156, consisting of 2579 Hindus and 2577 Muhammadans. Police station, school, post office. Founded by Rájá Naurang Deb, a Chauhán Rájput, who called it Naurangábád after his own name. On being attacked by the Musalmáns, the Rájá fled to Sirhpura, and the inhabitants who remained were forcibly converted to Islám. Shortly after, Naurang, assisted by the Rájá and people of Sirhpura, expelled the Musalmáns, and changed the name of the town to Saháwar. The place is now far from flourishing; small local *bázár*, bad communications. Tomb of Faj-ud-dín, a *fakír*, forms the only object of interest. Local income in 1873-74, £95.

Sahet Mahet (or *Srávasti*).—A vast collection of ruins in Gonda District, Oudh; situated in lat. 27° 31′ N., and long. 82° 5′ E., on the south bank of the Rápti river, 10 miles from Balrámpur, and 6 from Ikauna. These ruins have been identified by General Cunningham as the remains of the ancient city of Srávasti, whose site had been conjecturally fixed by Lassen within a few miles of the spot, but on the opposite bank of the river. The following account of these

interesting ruins is quoted from an account by Mr. W. C. Benett, C.S., in the *Oudh Gazetteer*, pp. 281–286. It is not necessary to agree with all Mr. Benett's dates and statements, in order to appreciate his work. See also General Cunningham's *Geography of Ancient India*, pp. 407–414 (ed. 1871).

'The foundation of the city is attributed to Srávasta, an old king of the Solar race, the ninth in descent from Manu, at a time beside which the most ancient myths are comparatively modern. From him was derived the name Srávasti, which appears in the Prákrit forms Sáwattha, Sáwanta, and Shrávanta, and has since been corrupted into Sahet. Though the words do not at first look alike, it is probable that the names of the river and the town, Sahet Mahet and Rápti, were once the same, viz. Sharávati, and derived from Savitri, the sun-god. At the mythical era of the *Rámáyana*, Srávasti was the capital of Uttar Kusála, the northern province of Ráma's empire, which, on the division of the kingdom at the death of that hero, fell to the share of his son Lava. At the commencement of the historical age, in the 6th century before Christ, we find it still one of the six principal kingdoms of Madhyadesa or Central Hindustán. It was then bounded on the south by Saketa, or Ajodhya, and on the east by Vaishali, the modern Behar and Benares; so it probably contained at least the present Districts of Bahráich, Gonda, Basti, and Gorakhpur. The king, Parasenáditya, who is given in the *Vishnu Purána* as great-grandson of Buddha, and who was very probably connected in race with the princely prophet, was an early convert to the new faith, and invited its founder to the Kalandaka Vihára in the Venuvana at Srávasti. Here, or in Ajodhya, Buddha spent the greater number of the rainy seasons, during which he used to rest from his missionary labours; nor did he finally leave the place till he started on that journey to Bengal which ended in his attainment of *nirvána*. During his lifetime, Sudatta, the prime minister, built the Jetavana, a magnificent monastery, whose ruins lie to the south-west of the capital. On the death of Parasenáditya, his son Virudháka succeeded, and showed himself a bitter enemy to the faith; he crowned many acts of oppression by including 500 Buddhist virgins in his harem. For this it was predicted that on the seventh day he should be consumed by fire. To falsify the prophecy, he and his court spent the day in boats on the pond to the south of the city; but the waters fled back, the earth yawned, and the guilty monarch disappeared in a supernatural flame.

'From this time, Srávasti remained one of the principal seats of Buddhist learning; and 12 centuries afterwards, the Chinese pilgrim collected with reverence the traditions of his faith which lingered round the sacred city. At the end of the 2nd century B.C., Rahulata, the sixteenth of the Buddhist patriarchs, died here after having imparted his

secret lore to the king's son, Sanghananadi; and at the fourth Buddhist Synod, convened by the so-called Emperor Kanishka, the Jetavana furnished one of the three principal sects of Sthavíras or Buddhist doctors.

'The greatest political importance ever reached by this State was in the reign of Vikramáditya, who, in the middle of the 2nd century A.D., overthrew the mightiest king in India, the Ghaváhana of Kashmír; and as ruler of a vast dominion stretching from Pesháwar to Málwá, and from Málwá to Bengal, assumed with some show of right the title of Emperor of Jambudirpa or the Indian continent. Contrary to the traditions of his capital, he was a bigoted adherent of the Bráhmanical religion; and the legends connected with his rebuilding of the sacred places at Ajodhya and Debi Pátan show how low the fortunes of that creed had fallen in these parts when he lent it his powerful support. Both were a complete jungle, and he restored the localities of the birth of Ráma and of his passage to heaven by measurements from the *Rámáyana.* His identifications probably are the base of the topography of the present day. The remains of this monarch's tank and temple still exist at Debi Pátan. His death appears to have been followed by open disputes between the rival faiths; and the story that a distinguished Buddhist, Vasubandhu, worsted the Bráhmans in argument, may refer to a more material victory, especially as we find that his still more distinguished predecessor, Man or Nita, had been worsted in argument by the Bráhmans under the Bráhman Vikramáditya.

'The Ajodhya tradition,' says Mr. Benett, 'preserves the correct story of the fall of this dynasty. It relates that after a glorious reign of eighty years, Vikramáditya was visited by a Jogi, Samudra Pál, who, after exhibiting several remarkable miracles, induced the monarch to allow his spirit to be temporarily transferred to a corpse. The royal body was no sooner vacant than Samudra Pál projected his own spirit into it, and refused to evacuate. By this disreputable trick, he obtained the throne of Ajodhya and Srávasti, which he and his descendants retained for 17 generations. The fact contained in this singular legend is that Samudra Gupta, who reigned for the first forty years of the 3rd century A.D., overthrew the local dynasty and himself reigned in their stead. The period of eighty years, as the duration of the rule of Vikramáditya and his descendants, is exceedingly probable; and it is singular, though much weight cannot be attached to the coincidence, that from Samudra Gupta to Gayáditya, the last of the Aditya monarchs of Kanauj, there are exactly seventeen names of the great Vaisya Emperors who governed Northern India.

'The Chinese pilgrims did not, of course, omit to visit so sacred a city. Fa-Hian in the commencement of the 5th century found it inhabited by 200 poor families, and the grand building in decay; and

150 years later, when Hiouen Thsang arrived, the desolation was complete, and only a few monks haunted the ruins.

'It was destined, however, to recover for a while before it finally disappeared from history; and it is here that I must refer to its connection with the origin of a third religion, that of the Jains. The third of their Tirthankáras, Shambhú Náth, was born at Sáwatthi; both his immediate predecessors and both successors were born at the neighbouring city of Ajodhya. There is still a small Jain temple dedicated to Sobhá Náth. I have no doubt that Sobhá Náth and Shambhú Náth, Sáwatthi and Srávasti, are the same, and that this was the birthplace of the third Tirthankára. The eighth of these supernatural beings was born at Chandripur, and this place is always identified in local tradition with Sahet Mahet, as I shall have occasion to remark when I come to the *Mahábhárata* legend. Since the best authorities differ by about 1500 years as to the probable date of these patriarchs, and their very existence is a fair subject for doubt, I shall not venture to conjecture on their connection with the rise of a strong Jain kingdom in the 9th and 10th centuries. Of this dynasty little more is known than of that of Vikramáditya; one great victory throws them into the full light of history, and an interesting legend accounts for their downfall. Local tradition gives the following list of names:—(1) Máyura Dhwája; (2) Hansa Dhwája; (3) Makara Dhwája; (4) Sudhanya Dhwája; (5) Suhiral or Suhel Deo or Dal. These are diversely reputed to have been either Thárus, or of some Rájput house. Considering the almost certain origin of the modern Rájputs, the two accounts may both be true; but, as they were Jains, some confusion about their caste is easily intelligible. What is utterly baffling is that the second and fourth are the heroes of one of the episodes of the Drigvijáya section of the *Mahábhárata.* The only monarch who is really historical is the last, whose capital was at Srávasti, and who had a fort at Asokpur or Hatíla or Raza, about half-way on the road between Gonda and Faizábád. The tradition connecting him with Dumhria Díh is clearly transferred from the recollections of the subsequent Dom dynasty. When Sálár Masáúd crossed the Gogra, he met Suhel Dal at Hatíla, and the Jains were apparently defeated, though the place is still reverenced as the scene of the martyrdom of a distinguished Muhammadan officer. The invaders pushed to the north, and, if tradition is to be believed, fought another great battle under the walls of Sahet Mahet, which contains the tomb of another martyr. Finally, after a long occupation of the country, the decisive battle was fought at Bahráich, where the Musalmáns were completely exterminated. In the indecisive conflicts and prolonged encampment in a hostile country, in all, in fact, but its denouement, the story bears a strong resemblance to that of the Pathán conquest of Utraula in the time of Sultán Sher Sháh Súr. It is said that only about forty years after this victory the

Jain house fell. The last king, whose name is not given, was passionately devoted to the chase, and returned one evening just as the sun was setting. It would have been a sin to eat after sunset, and the queen, in order to secure the royal supper, sent up to the roof the exceedingly beautiful wife of his younger brother. The experiment succeeded, and the sun stayed to enjoy the sight as long as she stood there. When the feast was over, she descended, and the sun at once disappeared. The astonished king inquired the cause, and was determined to see with his own eyes the wonder-working beauty. His incestuous passion was punished by the ruin of his State, and amidst a terrific storm the whole city was turned bottom upwards. The modern name Sahet Mahet, says the legend, is descriptive of this inversion. This story is valuable as putting beyond reasonable doubt the first religion to which these kings belonged—the inability to eat after sunset, which is the point on which the whole turns, being derived from the Jain reluctance to sacrifice insect life.

'The chronology is also not without its value, and I have no doubt points to the conquest of the country by the first of the great Rahtor kings of Kanauj, Srí Chandradeva. In the last half of the 11th century, he made a pilgrimage to Ajodhya and Kusála (*i.e.* Gonda); and with a Kshattriya prince, pilgrimage is often another word for military expedition—'*na Kshattriya ka bhagat na músal ka dhanuk*'—'you cannot make a saint of a Kshattriya, or a bow of a rice pestle.' An inscription of his descendant, the ill-starred Jái Chandra, has been found at Ajodhya.

'With the Ghori conquest of India, the history of Sahet Mahet comes absolutely to an end, and it only remains for me to notice one more local legend. Everywhere in the neighbourhood, it is told that the real name of the city before its overthrow was Chandrikápuri or Chandripur; and that it was here that Hansa Dhwája reigned, and Arjuna gained his very unheroic victory over the brave and beautiful Sudhania.

'All that now remains of this once famous city is the great fortress on the banks of the Rápti, with a smaller ruin to the south-west, a lofty mound due south on the Balrámpur and Bahráich roads, and numerous small piles of bricks, probably the remains of ancient *stupas*, scattered here and there within a distance of 2 miles of the main city. The fortress is in shape a semicircular crescent, with the concave side facing the river, and is completely surrounded by solid brick walls, the highest remains being to the west, where the ruins of the river bastion are still 50 feet in height. The ordinary walls vary from a greatest elevation of 40 feet on the western front to a lowest of 20 feet along the east and south-east. The interior is covered with jungle, so dense in parts as hardly to admit of the passage of an elephant,

and broken into undulations by the remains of temples and palaces underneath. All the principal buildings were in the western half, and it is there that the undergrowth is the thickest, only ceasing along two or three broad streets which have been left bare, and indicate the chief features of the old city. The main street runs right through the centre, and is built so as to command a view of the great mound Orá Jhár from one end to the other. To the south it debouches by one of the principal gateways; and at the north it ends in a small square, containing among other lofty remains the two principal mounds, which may be identified with the Sudattás house and the Angulimati, a *stupa* mentioned by Hiouen Thsang. The dense brushwood, and the possibility that the city which he saw may have been considerably altered by the later Jain dynasty, renders the application of that traveller's descriptions a difficult and hazardous task; but I am inclined to conjecture that his palace of Parasenáditya was situated among the mounds of the south-eastern corner, where now stands the small Jain temple. The next principal building mentioned by him, both in his *Life* and in the *Si-yu-ki*, is the Hall of the Law built by that monarch for Buddha, which would have been situated between the palace and the main street, while Prajapati's Vihára would have formed the whole or part of the long and even line of buildings which face the west of the street. The north-west corner of the ruin contains a large open space with a small pond in its centre, and a nearly straight road running from it to another southern gateway, and converging with the main street on the Orá Jhár. The eastern half has no very important remains, though the surface is broken everywhere with the débris of houses, and it was here probably that the common people had their quarters. The walls are pierced with numerous gateways, the principal being at either end of the main street and the north-eastern bastion, and in the middle and southern corner of the west wall. At the distance of half a mile from the south-west gate, and separated from the main town by swamps, which probably mark the course of the old moat, is another considerable ruin, identified by Hiouen Thsang with the old Jetávana, one of the most famous monasteries in India. It is a singular fact that this feature is exactly reproduced in the remains of Rángi in Rái Bareli, where a similar oblong ruin lies at the same distance and direction from the main town. The remainder of the Chinese pilgrim's measurements seem to have been taken from this point; but it is difficult to select among the numerous mounds the remains of the great Vihára and its rival the idol temple. Nearly a mile to the east of the Jetávana is the high congeries of bricks known, as is the Mani Parbat at Ajodhya, by the name Orá Jhár or "basket shakings," and supposed to be the place where Ráma's labourers emptied out their baskets of earth. This is identified with

some probability by General Cunningham with the Purvavaráma built by the lady Vaisákha in honour of Buddha. The top is protected by the tombs of two Muhammadan saints, but General Cunningham cleared one of the sides, and found four pilasters of an exceedingly ancient style of architecture. From the fact that two of the chief thoroughfares of the city so converge as to command a view of this mound, I should conjecture that it was more ancient than the plan of the present remains, and consequently one of the oldest monuments left in the neighbourhood. As yet very little is known of this very interesting ruin, which must contain relics that would do much to elucidate some of the darkest and most interesting periods of Indian history. I was once able to spend a few days in excavating, and dug more than 20 feet deep into the crown of the Angulimatia *stupa;* but beyond disclosing a square building of 24 feet each way, with a partition wall down the centre, and a second wall running all round the building at a distance of 4 feet, I discovered nothing of interest. It is somewhat difficult to get labourers, as the neighbouring villagers have a superstitious dread of interfering with the old city, and will not even enter it after sunset. A storm of thunder and lightning, which came on when I encamped there on a second occasion, was interpreted as a manifest token of the demons' displeasure with the man who had violated their haunts.'

Sáhibganj.—Town in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 14′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 40′ 3″ E., on the deep channel of the Ganges, which at all seasons runs close under the town, and contiguous to the station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. Owing to its favourable position, Sáhibganj has become of late years a great depôt for the exchange of traffic between the river and the rail, and has attracted to itself trade before localised at Bhágalpur, Pirpaintí, Rájmahál, and other marts of less note. In 1876-77, the total registered trade of Sáhibganj was valued at more than £450,000, including exports, imports, and in many cases re-exportations. Local produce is received by river from the trans-Gangetic tracts of North Maldah, Purniah, and Bhágalpur; while European goods come up by rail from Calcutta, to be distributed in the same Districts. In 1876-77, the principal items under the former head were—indigo, £86,000; oil-seeds, £38,000; rice, £28,000; hides and stone, £27,000; wheat, £17,000: and under the latter head—cotton piece-goods, £38,000; salt, £12,000.

A registration station was first established at Sáhibganj in 1872, to ascertain the amount of river traffic passing along the Ganges between Lower Bengal on the one hand, and Behar and the Upper Provinces on the other. During the three years 1872-74, the average number of laden cargo boats passing Sáhibganj both ways was about 33,000; the total weight of the cargoes amounted to about 10 million *maunds*, or

say 360,000 tons a year. The down-stream traffic is by far the larger of the two, especially during the latter half of the year, when the river is in flood. Nearly half the down-stream traffic consisted of the single item of oil-seeds, which amounted to nearly 100,000 tons a year, sent chiefly from the Behar marts of Revelganj and Patná. Next came wheat, pulses and gram, sugar and saltpetre; but none of these exceeded 20,000 tons a year. The up-stream traffic predominates during the first half of the year, the boats being often towed up by rope from the bank, assisted by sails. The chief cargoes were rice, about 100,000 tons a year; and salt, 40,000 tons. In 1876-77, the total number of boats that passed the registration station was 43,020, thus classified—up-stream, 12,379 laden and 9179 empty; down-stream, 18,419 laden and 3043 empty.

Sáhibganj.—Civil station of Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 47′ 58″ N., long. 85° 2′ 45″ E. Adjoins GAYA TOWN, of which it forms a part. Total population of Gayá with Sáhibganj (1872), 66,843.

Sáhibganj.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the river Bayá, a spill channel of the Gandak, from which it is about 4 miles distant, 30 miles north-west of Muzaffarpur town. Large *bázárs*, with trade in oil-seeds, wheat, pulses, and salt, exported by means of the Gandak; chief manufacture, shoes. Two schools. Roads to Motíhárí, Motípur, and Lálganj.

Sáhibganj. — Village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice and mustard-seed.

Sáhibganj.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 26′ 20″ N., long. 87° 52′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), under 5000.

Sáhibganj.—Village on the river of the same name in Bákarganj District, Bengal. Exports of rice, molasses, and *sundrí* wood; imports of salt, oil, tobacco, cloth, and pulses.

Sáhibi (*Sabí*).—Hill stream in Gurgáon District, Punjab; rises in Rájputána near the Sámbhar Lake, flows through the Riwári tract, and empties itself into the Najafgarh *jhíl* or lake on the borders of Delhi District. It frequently submerges the land near the foot of the hills, which thus becomes extremely rich and fertile. The water is utilized by means of numerous dams, which force it to spread over the face of the country, and check the violence of its course near the hills.

Sahispur.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAHASPUR.

Sahiswán. — *Tahsíl* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, stretching inward from the north bank of the Ganges. Area, 473 square miles, of which 328 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 203,206; land revenue, £21,284; total Government revenue, £23,423; rental paid by cultivators, £44,530.

Sahiswán.—Municipal town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Pop. (1872), 17,063, consisting of 8245 Hindus, 8814 Muhammadans, and 4 'others.' *Munsifi*, distillery, good *sarái*, Government charitable dispensary, school-house. A large mound marks the site of an ancient fort, said to have been built by Rájá Sahasra Bábu. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1131; from taxes, £656, or 9⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits. Lat. 28° 4′ 20″ N., long. 78° 47′ 20″ E.

Sahiwál.—Municipal town in Sháhpur District, Punjab, and former capital of a native chief. Pop. (1868), 8900, consisting of 4870 Hindus, 3887 Muhammadans, 5 Síkhs, and 138 'others.' Situated in lat. 31° 58′ N., and long. 72° 22′ E., on the left bank of the Jhelum (Jhílam), 20 miles south of Sháhpur town. Founded, according to tradition, by Gúl Bahlak, one of the ancestors of the Baluch chiefs who held the neighbouring country until the time of Ranjít Sinh. Badly built, and surrounded by a mass of stagnant water, which gives rise to much malaria; but strenuous efforts have been taken to abate this evil. Brisk trade in cotton, grain, and *ghí* with Múltán (Mooltan) and Sukkur (Sakkar). The merchants act as bankers and money-lenders for the cultivating classes, while many of them farm estates on their own account. Manufacture of hardware and of turnery in wood and ivory. Town hall, dispensary, police station, school-house, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £577, or 1s. 3½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sahúka.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £265, of which £51 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £6 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sahuwálá.—*Tahsíl* of Sírsa District, Punjab. Population (1868), 57,520 persons.

Sahyádri.—Mountain range in Bombay. The term Sahyádri is applied to the entire system of the WESTERN GHATS (*q.v.*) from the Tápti river to Cape Comorin, but more especially to the ranges in the coast Districts of the Deccan. The Sahyádri hills in this sense commence in Khándesh District, and they run south and south-west, as far as Goa, with scattered continuations to the Pál Ghát. Ratnágiri may be taken as an example of the coast Districts. The range here forms the continuous eastern boundary, running parallel to the coast. It varies in height from 2000 to 3000 feet, though some of the peaks attain an altitude of 5000 feet. While the banks of the streams produce splendid crops of rice in the rains, with pulse in the cold weather, and some of the inland valleys exhibit a high fertility, the soil is, as a rule, poor and barren, and supports with difficulty its overcrowded population. The coast is rocky and dangerous. It consists of a series

of small bays and coves shut in between jutting headlands, and edged with sand of a dazzling whiteness. At places the hills recede a little, leaving at their base a rich tract of rice fields, with an evergreen strip of cocoa-nut gardens between them and the beach. At intervals of about ten miles a river or bay opens, sufficiently large to form a secure harbour for native craft; and the promontories at the river mouths are almost invariably crowned with the ruins of an old fort. The larger rivers and creeks are navigable for twenty or thirty miles from the coast; and many of the most important towns are situated at their farthest navigable point, for in so rough a country the rivers form the best highways of trade and communication. The wells of the coast villages supply a brackish but not unwholesome water.

The Sahyádri hills in their geological relations have a wider application, and include, as stated above, the whole Western Gháts from the Tápti to Cape Comorin in the extreme south of the peninsula. The authors of the official *Geology of India* (Messrs. Medlicott and Blanford) have described the Sahyádri hills in this sense as follows:—'The Sahyádri range consists to the northward of horizontal or nearly horizontal strata of basalt and similar rocks, cut into a steep scarp on the western side by denudation, and similarly eroded, though less abruptly, to the eastward. The highest summits, such as Mahábaleshwar, 4717 feet, are perfectly flat-topped, and are clearly undenuded remnants of a great elevated plain. South of about 16° N. lat., the horizontal igneous rocks disappear, and the range is composed of ancient metamorphic strata; and here there is in some places a distinct connection between the strike of the foliation and the direction of the hills; but still the connection is only local, and the dividing range consists either of the western scarp of the Mysore plateau, or of isolated hill groups, owing their form apparently to denudation. Where the rocks are so ancient as those are that form all the southern portion of the Sahyádri, it is almost impossible to say how far the original direction of the range is due to axes of disturbance; but the fact that all the principal elevations, such as the Nílgiris, Palnis, etc., some peaks on which rise to over 8000 feet, are plateaus and not ridges, tends to show that denudation has played the principal share in determining their contour. The southern portion of the Sahyádri range is entirely separated by a broad gap (the PALGHAT, *q.v.*), through which the railway from Madras to Beypur passes.' See also the article GHATS (Western).

Sai.—River of Oudh, rising in Hardoi District in lat. 27° 10′ N., and long. 80° 32′ E. (Thornton), between the Gumti and the Ganges. It flows in a tortuous south-easterly direction through Oudh, passing Rái Bareli and Partábgarh towns, enters the North-West Provinces in the Jaunpur District, and falls into the Gumti on its right or south bank a few miles below Jaunpur town. Navigable in the rains for country

boats of 10 tons burden as far as Rái Bareli town. Captain Wilford mentioned that this river 'is called Sambu and Sukti, and in the spoken dialects, Sye, because it abounds with small shells. This is really the case, as I have repeatedly observed whilst surveying or travelling along its banks. They are all fossil, small, and embedded in its banks, and appear here and there when laid bare by the encroachments of the river; they consist chiefly of cockles and periwinkles.' Wilford identifies the Sai with 'the Sambus of Megasthenes;' but the Sambus is mentioned by Arrian as a tributary of the Jumna. Arrowsmith's old map of India, '50 kos to the degree,' compiled chiefly from military sources, showed a cross communication between the Sai and the Gumti some distance above Lucknow. This does not appear in later maps.

Saidábád.—*Tahsíl* in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDABAD.

Saidápet (*Sydapet*).—Headquarters of the Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras, and a station on the South Indian Railway; situated in lat. 13° 1′ 32″ N., and long. 80° 15′ 40″ E., 5 miles from Madras city. Pop. (1871), 2989, inhabiting 411 houses. A large salt depôt, and site of the Government model farm. This model farm was established in 1865, under the Governorship of Sir William Denison. From the first, it was fortunate in the appointment of Mr. Robertson as its superintendent, under whose care many series of agricultural experiments have been conducted with an intelligence and continuity seldom combined in India. Among the results are—the quantitative determination of the value of manure, of irrigation, and of deep ploughing; the acclimatization of many foreign plants; the adaptability of European implements to Indian agriculture; and above all, the growth of green crops for fodder at all seasons of the year. The manures which have been applied with profit comprise lime, saltpetre, oilcake, and poudrette, none of which enters into the native system of rural economy. The most remunerative green crops are *cholam* (Sorghum vulgare), guinea grass (Panicum jumentorum), and horse-gram (Dolichos uniflorus). Paddy and sugar-cane also give good fodder, when cut green. In order to extend the practical utility of these experiments, a school of agriculture was opened in connection with the farm in 1876. A full class of 30 pupils joined in the first year, of whom no fewer than 9 came from the Bombay Presidency. It is proposed to build a chemical laboratory, agricultural museum, and veterinary hospital. For some years past, the workshop attached to the farm has turned implements for distribution throughout the country. The following is an outline of the financial working of the institution for 1877-78:—Income—provincial grant, £2000; surplus pound fund, £3820; receipts from farm, £233; receipts from workshop, £185; total income, £6238: Expenditure—

general supervision, £1925; farm, £1100; workshops, £203; school of agriculture, £1941; estate improvements, £1036; allowance for medical charge, £36; total expenditure, £6241.

Saidnagar.—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDNAGAR.

Saidpur.—*Táluk* in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidpur.—Town in Farídpur District, Bengal.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidpur.—*Tahsíl* and village in Ghazípur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidwálá.—Town in Montgomery District, Punjab.—*See* SAYYIDWALA.

Sáifganj.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 32′ N., and long. 87° 37′ 36″ E., 20 miles distant from Purniah town. The population of Sáifganj itself is only (1872) 1200, but it is closely surrounded by suburban villages, which bring up the total number of inhabitants to about 10,000. The town contains a vernacular school, police outpost, and Government distillery; there are also 3 Muhammadan mosques, and a Hindu *math* or temple built in 1822, and two old tanks excavated in 1807 and 1822 respectively. The value of rice annually exported from Sáifganj is estimated at £25,000, and that of mustard at £5000; the number of blankets annually manufactured is valued at £600. Sáifganj was founded about 150 years ago by the Nawáb Sáif Khán, and is now one of the most populous places in Purniah.

Sáifganj Pirwaha.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 13′ 55″ N., long. 87° 15′ 51″ E.; 38 miles distant from Purniah town, and 16 from Basantpur. Pop. (1872), 709. It possesses a middle-class vernacular school, attended by 30 boys.

Sailána (*Sillána*).—Native State in the Western Málwá Agency, under the Central India Agency. Area, about 500 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), about 27,000; estimated revenue, £22,140. This State originally formed a part of RATLAM. On the death of Kesari Sinh, Rájá of Ratlam, in 1709, his eldest son, Mán Sinh, succeeded to the lands forming the present State of Ratlam, and Jái Sinh, his second son, to Sailána. An annual tribute of £3300 was formerly paid to Sindhia, but is now assigned to the British Government in part payment of the Gwalior contingent, under the same conditions as the tribute of Ratlam. The present Rájá of Sailána, Dúla Sinh, is a Rahtor Rájput, and was born about 1838. He receives a salute of 11 guns. The military force of the State consists of 3 field guns, 18 artillerymen, 50 horse, and 120 foot. Sailána (Sillána), the chief town of the State, lies in lat. 23° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 0′ 45″ E.

Sailu.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces.—*See* SELU.

Sáin.—Mountain range in Sírmúr State, Punjab, lying between

30° 37′ and 30° 51′ N. lat., and between 77° 15′ and 77° 29′ E. long. Thornton states that its length is about 25 miles, running from north-west to south-east. This range divides the basin of the Julal from that of the Giri. Estimated elevation above sea level, from 6000 to 8000 feet.

Saint George, Fort.—See MADRAS CITY. Lat. 13° 4′ 45″ N., long. 80° 20′ E.

Saint Thomas' Mount (*Farangi-malai*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras; the headquarters of the old Madras artillery, and still one of the most important military stations in the Presidency. Lat. 13° 0′ 18″ N., long. 80° 14′ 11″ E.; pop. (1871), 15,480, inhabiting 2364 houses. The town possesses a fine church, several chapels, numerous military buildings, including a handsome artillery mess-house, post office, and cantonment magistrate's court. It is a pretty place, and well kept. The *bázár* and native huts are hidden away to the eastward, which adds to the favourable impression made on the visitor who sees it for the first time. The church, standing at the southern end of the parade-ground, is one of the best-looking edifices of its kind in the country. It is seated for 500 men and 80 officers and their families. There are, besides, a Wesleyan chapel at the foot of the mount steps, a Roman Catholic chapel for the European troops, and another small Roman Catholic church, 74 feet long by 25 wide, built in 1764 by the boatmen of Madras, and dedicated to the 'Presentation of the Blessed Virgin.' The total population of Saint Thomas' Mount was in 1871, 15,480, of whom 918 were Europeans and 447 East Indians. The other principal castes and nationalities were Musalmáns (1928), Pariahs (3700), Vellálars (2549), and Pallis (1802). The soil is gravelly, and the health of the station is exceptionally good, epidemic cholera being of rare occurrence. The 'Mount' itself is a granite and syenite rock, about 220 feet above sea level, overlooking the cantonment. On its summit stands the curious old Portuguese church of The Expectation of the Blessed Virgin. This is built over the spot where the Portuguese in 1547 discovered the celebrated Mount Cross, attributed to the legendary evangelism of Saint Thomas. Lucena gives the following account of the finding of the Cross:—'It was met with on digging for the foundations of a hermitage amid the ruins which marked(?) the spot of the martyrdom of the Apostle Saint Thomas. On one face of the slab was a cross in relief, with a bird like a dove over it, with its wings expanded as the Holy Ghost is usually represented when descending on our Lord at His baptism, or on our Lady at her annunciation. This cross was erected over the altar at the chapel which was built on the new sanctuary.' Dr. Burnell (*Indian Antiquary*, 1874, p. 313) says: 'This account is, no doubt, accurate, for the Portuguese first visiting the mount found the Christian church in ruins, and occupied by a native *fakír*. The description of the slab is also

accurate. It does not appear what cause had destroyed the Christian community there, but it probably was owing to the political disturbances attending the war between the Muhammadans of the north and the Hindu kingdom of Vijáyanagar.' Referring to an Italian account (in the 17th century) of the Cross and the Mount festival, Dr. Burnell continues: 'The cross is built into the wall behind the altar in a church on the Great Mount, which is served by a native priest under the Goa jurisdiction. An annual festival is held here, which brings a large assemblage of native Christians to the spot, and causes an amount of disorder which the European Catholic clergy of Madras have in vain tried to put down.' In Anglo-Indian history, and notably in the wars of the Karnatic, Saint Thomas' Mount was a place of great importance. The battle fought here on the 7th February 1759 was one of the fiercest struggles of the Franco-British wars in India. It is thus described by Mr. Crole:—'Colonel Calliaud had been summoned from the south to assist in raising the siege of Madras. He took post at the Mount, with his right at a deserted little temple at the north-east of the present parade-ground, and his left supported by a house called Carvalho's garden, where he posted four pieces of cannon. His troops included the contingent brought by the Company's partisan Muhammad Isaf, and consisted of 2200 horse, 2500 foot, and 6 cannons. Of these, however, only 1500 natives, 80 Europeans, and 12 artillerymen were possessed of the slightest discipline. Lally's forces aggregated 2600, half of whom were Europeans, and all disciplined. He had, besides, 8 guns, possessing a great superiority in weight of metal. The fight lasted from early morning till five P.M., when the enemy, to Colonel Calliaud's intense relief, retreated. The latter had ammunition sufficient to have lasted for about a couple of minutes more.' 'On the 20th March 1769, Haidar Alí, who had marched within 5 miles of Madras, met Mr. Dupré, the senior member of council, and here the disgraceful treaty of the 2nd April was signed. In 1774, at the suggestion of Colonel James, the Mount was established as the headquarters of the artillery. The garrison of the Mount formed the major part of the force (under Sir Hector Munro) that ought to have saved Baillie in 1780. During its absence, only five companies of Sepoys and 4 guns had been left for the protection of the Mount, and a temporary earthwork was raised to strengthen the place against attack. This has long been levelled, but a slight depression crossing the plain midway between Palavaram and the Mount indicates the position of what went by the name of the Marhattá Ditch.'—*Chengalpat Distr. Man.* p. 73. According to Dr. Burnell, the date of the cross tablet and its Pehlevi inscription is probably about the 8th century.

Saint Thome (*Maláipur, Mylapore*).—Suburb of MADRAS CITY (*q.v.*). Lat. 13° 2′ N., long. 80° 19′ E.

Sáipur.—Town in Unao District, Oudh.—*See* SAFIPUR.

Sáiri.—Village in the Simla Hills, in a part of the Kunhiár territory assigned to the Rájá of Patiála. Lat. 31° 6′ N., long. 77° 6′ E.; stands on a ridge crossed by the road from Kálka and Kasauli to Simla *viâ* Subáthu, 10 miles from Simla station. Staging bungalow. Elevation above sea level, 4971 feet.

Sakala.—Ruins in Jhang District, Punjab.—*See* SANGALA.

Sakeswar (*Sukesar*).—Mountain in Sháhpur District, Punjab; the highest peak in the SALT RANGE. Lat. 32° 33′ N., long. 71° 58′ E. A fine well-wooded hill, forming the terminal point in which two divergent spurs of the range re-unite. Upon its summit stands the sanitarium for Sháhpur and Miánwáli. Excellent building space; abundant supply of good water. Distant 25 miles east of Miánwáli. Elevation above sea level, 4994 feet.

Sakhar and Shikárpur.—Subdivision, *táluk*, and town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* SUKKUR.

Sakheda.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 5522.

Sakhi-Sarwar.—Famous Muhammadan shrine in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 30° N., long. 70° 10′ 30″ E. The shrine crowns the high bank of a hill stream, at the foot of the Sulaimán range, in the midst of arid desert scenery, 'well adapted for the residence of those who desire to mortify the flesh.' Founded in honour of Saidi Ahmad, afterwards known as Sakhi Sarwár, the son of an immigrant from Bághdád, who settled at Sialkot, 12 miles east of Múltán, in the year 1220. Saidi Ahmad became a devotee, and having performed a very remarkable series of miracles, was presented by the Delhi Emperor with four mule-loads of money, with which the Sakhi-Sarwár shrine was erected. A handsome flight of steps leads from the bed of the stream to the building, constructed at the expense of two Hindu merchants of Lahore. The buildings include—the mausoleum of Sakhi Sarwár himself; a monument of Bába Nának; the tomb of Massamát Bíbí Bhái, wife of Sakhi Sarwár; and a *thakúrdwára*. They thus comprise a curious mixture of Hindu and Muhammadan architecture, and are frequented by devotees of all religions. The guardians of the shrine are the descendants of Sakhi Sarwár's three servants always miraculously limited to the number of 1650, among whom the revenues accruing from the offerings are equally divided. Throughout the year, the shrine forms the resort of numerous mendicants, Hindu and Muhammadan.

Sakít.—Ancient and decaying town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 26′ 10″ N., long. 78° 49′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 5415, consisting of 3739 Hindus and 1676 Muhammadans. Sakít stands on a very isolated site, 12 miles south-east of Etah town. Its hill was once crowned by a fort; but now only the remains of a large and

ancient mosque, erected in the 13th century, testify to the former supremacy of the Muhammadan element. On the highest part of the existing town rises a half-finished modern temple, remarkable for its Saracenic arches, supported on slender pillars of richly carved Agra stone,—an ambitious work commenced by a commissariat servant (who enriched himself during the Síkh war), but died before its completion. The town clusters around this temple, which, from its conspicuous position, forms a landmark for many miles around. The principal road enters Sakít by a fine new bridge over a ravine, constructed out of the foundations of the old fort. Handsome *bázár*, lined by good shops with flat and pointed ornamental fronts. Trees line the roadway and afford a pleasant shade. The *sarái* is now in ruins; the roof of the old mosque is broken down; and the water of the handsome well has become brackish. New brick-built police station on the site of the old fort; post office, school-house. Small trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed. Numerous inscriptions on mosques. Bahlol Lodi died at Sakít in 1488; and Ibráhím Lodi planted a colony of Kont Musalmáns here in 1520.

Sakkaraikottai.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. 10° 28′ 30″ N., long. 77° 59′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 7578, dwelling in 1619 houses.

Sakleshpur (lit. '*The Fragmentary God*').—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 50′ 31″ E., on the right bank of the Hemavati river, 23 miles west of Hassan town. Pop. (1871), 1027; municipal revenue (1874-75), £9; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. Headquarters of the Manjarábád *táluk*, and the centre of the coffee trade. The Hemavati is here crossed by an iron girder bridge, carrying the road by which the coffee of the highlands is borne to the seaport of Mangalore.

Sákolí.—The eastern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Area, 2174 square miles; pop. (1872), 249,323 persons, residing in 781 villages or townships and 47,471 houses. Sákolí town is situated in lat. 21° 15′ N., and long. 80° E.

Sakrand.—*Táluk* of the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind. Area, 1399 square miles; pop. (1872), 53,566; gross revenue (1873-74), £8708.

Sakráypatna.—Village in Kádúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 26′ N., and long. 75° 58′ 5″ E., 15 miles by road north-east of Chik-magalur. Pop. (1871), 1866. The site of an ancient city locally identified with the capital of Rukman-gada, a king mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*. The objects now extant include—a monument to Hon-billa, a watchman whose life was sacrificed in order to preserve the neighbouring AYYANKERE TANK; a huge gun; and an immense slab of stone, 12 feet square and several inches thick, supported on four pillars.

In historical times, Sakráypatna passed through the hands of several families of local chiefs, until annexed to the Hindu kingdom of Mysore in 1690. A large fair is held weekly on Fridays. At the annual car festival of Ranganáth, 3000 rams are sacrificed in honour of the god.

Sakri.—River of Bengal, rising in Hazáribágh District, and flowing in a generally northerly direction through Gayá and Patná Districts. In Hazáribágh, it has a drainage basin of 810 square miles, and being the central stream in a low well-cultivated valley, it receives from all sides numerous feeders. It has a distinct water system, and preserves its own name while it passes through Gayá and Patná Districts on its way to join the Ganges in Monghyr. Throughout its course it is much used for irrigation.

Saktí. — Native State, at the eastern limit of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, to which it is now attached. Pop. (1872), 8394, chiefly Hindus, residing in 94 villages and 2896 houses; area, 115 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated and 47 returned as cultivable waste. Density of population, 73 persons per square mile. Saktí was originally one of the Garhját States attached to Sambalpur District. It consists of a curved strip of level country, partly open, partly covered with forest, skirting the base of a range known as the Gunji Hills. Chief products—rice, wheat, oil-seeds, and cotton, besides a small quantity of forest produce, consisting of lac, resin, gum, and *mahua* fruit. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and pays a tribute of £35. At present, however (1877), the State is under direct British administration. Total revenue for 1876-77, £843, of which £397 was derived from land revenue; expenditure, £959. In 1872, only 22 persons were returned as able to read and write, or as being under instruction. Saktí town lies in lat. 22° 0′ 30″ N., and long. 83° E.

Salámbha.—Village and salt-works in Gurgáon District, Punjab; situated in the midst of a large saline tract, known as the Noh *mahál*s, and at the foot of the Mewát Hills, north of Sonah. The manufactured article bears the general name of Salámbha salt, but is produced in ten separate places within this region. It is made by the evaporation of brine drawn from wells, together with the washings of saline earth, and is of very inferior quality, containing large amounts of other ingredients besides the pure chloride. The total quantity manufactured in 1871-72 was 203,182 *maunds*.

Sálandi (properly *Sálnadí*).—River of Bengal, so called from the *sál* forests which it traverses. It rises in the southern slope of the Meghásani Mountain in Morbhanj State, and in its upper course is a black-water river with high banks and a bottom of muddy sand. For miles the Sálandi flows through one continuous grove of palms and bamboos; it is navigable for country boats as high as 6 miles

from its junction with the Baitarani. Its lower course bifurcates into a network of streams interlaced with those of the Matái, a river bringing down the drainage of the country between the Kánsbáns and the Sálandi, and after a tortuous course falling into the Dhámrá near its mouth. The area of the catchment basin of the Sálandi is 250 square miles; the maximum discharge in flood time, 60,000 cubic feet; and the average cold-weather discharge, 260 cubic feet.

Saláya.—Port in Nawánagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay.

Salbái (*Salbye*).—Village in Gwalior State, Central India; situated 32 miles south-east of the fort of Gwalior, in lat. 25° 51′ N., long. 78° 19′ E. Celebrated for the treaty concluded here in 1782 between the British Government and the Marhattá Confederacy, at the close of the struggle for the Peshwáship which took place after the death of Madho Ráo Ballal. That treaty provided for the surrender to the Peshwá of Bassein and other territory captured by the British during the war; and the cession to the British of Salsette, Elephanta, Karanj, and Hog islands off Bombay. Under the third article of the treaty, the right of the British to the town and *parganá* of Broach was fully recognised, but these were conferred by Government upon Sindhia in consideration of his services, but upon the condition that British trade should be free and unmolested. (*See* Aitchison's *Treaties and Engagements*, vols. iii. and iv., ed. 1876.)

Sálbaldi.—Village and hill on the Márú river; situated in lat. 21° 26′ N., and long. 77° 59′ E., 5 miles north of Morsi, partly in Ellichpur District, Berar, and partly in Betúl District, Central Provinces. Celebrated on account of two springs, one very cold, the other warm. When Sítá was deserted by Ráma, she is said by local tradition to have come to Sálbaldi, and to have given birth here to two sons, Kusa and Lava. This tradition would identify Sálbaldi as the scene of the hermitage of Valmiki, whither Sítá, when pregnant, was banished by Ráma.

Sálbet (*Shialbet*, *Searbet*, *Shalbet*).—Island situated about 2 miles from the coast of Káthiáwár, Bombay, in lat. (centre) 20° 54′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 33′ 30″ E., 8 miles east-north-east of Jafarábád and 17 miles from Mowah Point. It is about three-quarters of a mile long on its sea-face, and a little more than half a mile broad. Old fortifications stand on its north-west and south points, the latter being strongly constructed. The island is of sandstone, and is included within the State of JAFARABAD. A well in the centre supplies good water. Salbet was formerly a famous piratical stronghold, and might, according to Taylor (*Sailing Directory*, p. 360), be made a safe harbour. Such a refuge is much wanted along the south coast of Káthiáwár.

Salem (*Selam*).—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 11° 2′ and 12° 54′ N. lat., and between 77° 33′ and 79° 6′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878, 7483 square

miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 1,966,995 persons. It is bounded north by Mysore (Maisúr) and North Arcot, east by Trichinopoli and South and North Arcot, south by portions of Coimbatore and Trichinopoli, and west by Coimbatore and Mysore. The administrative headquarters are at SALEM TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Except towards the south, the District is hilly, with large plains lying between the several ranges. The chief of these ranges are the Shevaroys (highest point, 5410), the Kalráyans (about 4000), the Melagiris (4580), the Kollimalais (4663), the Pachamalais (about 4000), the Yelagiris (4441), the Jevádis (3840), the Vatthalamalais (about 4000), the Erlvánis and Valasaimalais (about 3800), the Bodamalais (4019), the Thopúr Hills, the Thalaimalais. There are also innumerable detached peaks and smaller ranges. The District has been described as comprising 'three distinct tracts of country, known as the Talághát, the Báramahál, and the Bálághát divisions. The Talághát division, as its name implies, is situated below the Eastern Gháts on the level of the Karnatic generally, and in soil and climate differs but little from the neighbouring Districts of Trichinopoli and South Arcot. The Báramahál division includes the whole Salem face of the Gháts and a wide tract of country at their base; and the Bálághát is situated above the Gháts, on the tableland of Mysore.' Of the Osúr *táluk*, only one-half to the north is really Bálághát, the southern half lying considerably below the level of the Mysore plateau. Osúr itself is about 3000 feet above the sea. Dharmapuri is about 1500 feet, and Krishnagiri from 1500 to 2000 feet above sea level. Tirupatúr and Uttankarai lie in one basin, and average slightly over 1350 feet above sea level. At Salem there is a considerable drop, the town of that name being only 947 feet above the sea. The climate is generally dry, and in the northern portions cooler than in the south; the climate of Osúr being as temperate as that of Bangalore.

The chief river of the District is the KAVERI (Cauvery), from the left bank of which a large area in Tiruchengod and Námakal is irrigated. The PALAR only flows through a few miles of the northern corner of the Tirupatúr *táluk*, where it does nearly as much harm as good, as comparatively little use is made of the water, and the town of Vániambadi lies at its mercy. In 1874, a considerable portion of this town was washed away, and it is only a question of time when the remainder, hitherto preserved at considerable cost, will follow. The PENNAR, rising in Mysore territory, flows through Osúr and Krishnagiri to Uttankarai, where, near the South Arcot frontier, it is joined from north and south by the Pámbár and Vániár, minor streams. The Sanathkumaranadi traverses Osúr and Dharmapuri, in the latter *táluk*, near Marandahalli, being tapped with profit to *rayats* and Government. The fertility of the Atúr *táluk* is chiefly due to the Vasishtanadi and

Swethanadi, which flow eastward into South Arcot. There are, besides these, numerous tributaries of the Káveri. A small traffic is carried on the Káveri in basket boats, and timber is occasionally floated down. The water of these rivers is utilized either by anicuts thrown across their beds or by channels which tap the banks. The channel system is very extensively worked in the Paramathi Division of the Námakal *táluk.* The fisheries of the District, although they make a considerable total, are individually insignificant, consisting of the right of fishing in the different Government tanks, which is purchased for sums varying from 10s. to more than £20.

The District forests are of considerable value, but there is some reason to fear that they have been overworked, with a view to immediate profit rather than ultimate revenue. The Jevádi and Yelagiri Hills still contain some valuable timber, and a large portion of the Shevaroys is clothed with middling-sized jungle. Sandal-wood is found. The most valuable forest is the belt of *vengai* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*) on the hilly tracts which fringe the Káveri in the south of the Osúr *táluk* and towards Pennagaram. Reserves and plantations have been formed for the supply of fuel to the railway, but at the present stage the experiment is not sufficiently advanced to admit of an accurate estimate being formed of its utility. Jungle produce, such as honey, bees-wax, barks for tanning and dyeing, soap-nut, fibres, medicinal roots, etc., are collected by the Malayális and other jungle tribes; in some cases this right is rented out. Lac is found in the Osúr jungles, and both in the hills and on the plains the tamarind is a fertile source of revenue.

Wild animals are daily diminishing in numbers, as each hillman carries a gun and shoots for food everything that comes in his way, regardless of sex, age, or season of the year. Bison and even elephants are occasionally seen on the Jevádis. Leopards and bears are to be found in most of the hilly tracts. *Sámbhar* deer may be found towards Pennagaram, and in a few places in the Osúr *táluk.* Hyænas, antelope, deer of several kinds, wild pig, a species of armadillo, and a few wolves complete the catalogue. Pea and jungle fowl, duck, teal, snipe, florican, etc., can be had in season.

The geology has been only partially examined. The formation is mostly gneissic, granite and trap dikes cropping up occasionally. The principal varieties of rock belonging to the gneiss which occur in the eastern part are, in the order of their importance and extent of development—(1) Hornblendic schists and rocks; (2) Quartzo-felspathic gneiss, massive or schistose; (3) Talcose and chloritic rocks (generally schistose, rarely massive); (4) Magnetic iron beds; (5) Crystalline limestones. Magnesite veins occur chiefly at the Chalk Hills (so miscalled) near the foot of the Shevaroys. Pot-stone is found in

several places. (*Vide* Vol. IV., Part 2, *Mem. Geo. Surv. of India.*) Magnetic iron occurs in practically inexhaustible quantities. Corundum and chromate of iron are also obtainable. The washings of some rivers yield gold, notably the Pennár (more correctly Ponniár, so named on account of its golden sands). It is probable that gold may exist in the Osúr *táluk*, where it borders on Mysore. There is no coal. Lime is available in sufficient quantities to serve as a flux in iron-smelting.

History. — The history of Salem, or rather of Salem with the Báramahál as one District, may be said to begin not very long before the middle of last century. Until 1600 A.D., most of the present District, or at all events the Báramahál and Bálághát portions, were probably jungle and desert, with here and there a highland chief—half *pálegár*, half robber—holding his state in rocky keep or mountain castle, owning perhaps some ill-defined allegiance to the distant Rájá of Vijáyanagar. The south and south-west *táluks* no doubt belonged to Chera, and were absorbed in the rising power of Mysore during the 17th century, before the close of which the victorious arms of Chik Deo Ráj had brought the Báramahál under the same authority. The chief interest in its later history centres in the fate of the fortresses of the BARAMAHAL; and although the District has no connected history, there are few parts of Southern India that contain more spots of interest for English students.

Salem, as at present composed, was acquired by the treaties known as the Treaty of Peace with Tipú Sultán in 1792, and the Partition Treaty of Mysore (1799). By the former treaty, the Talághát and Báramahál were ceded; and by the latter the Bálághát, or what is now the Osúr *táluk*, came into the hands of the British. The District contains 9 *táluks;* of which two are directly under the Collector, three under the Sub-Collector, two form the Head Assistant's charge, and two are in charge of the general Deputy Collector. Its limits are now identical with those of 1799, except that the Kangundi *zamíndárí*, north of the Pálár, was finally transferred to North Arcot in 1808.

Administrative History.—Immediately on the acquisition of the Talághát and Báramahál, Colonel (then Captain) Read was placed in charge, with Captains Graham, MacLeod, and Munro (afterwards Governor of Madras) as his assistants. He at once addressed himself to the survey of the District, and to the introduction of a uniform revenue system, which was fairly launched throughout this portion of the District in 1796, as a *rayatwárí* system to be confirmed for ever. This, however, met with no favour at headquarters, where the idea of leases on the *zamíndárí* system had been resolved on. The *zamíndárí* system was formerly unknown in Salem, but the Government ordered it to be introduced. In 1799, Read, with Munro as his secretary,

followed the tide of war into Mysore, and never returned to the District. A new administrator succeeded them, and so faithfully carried out orders, that by 1805 the *zamíndárí* system was in full force everywhere, except in the Bálághát, which escaped owing to its being a recent acquisition, and, after being leased out for two years to two natives, was finally surveyed in 1804, since which time it has prospered. Great losses followed on the overthrow of Read's settlement. The 205 estates existing and paying 16 *lákhs* of rupees (say £160,000) in 1805, had by 1821 been so reduced in value that they only paid 8 *lákhs*, which in 1836 fell to 5 *lákhs*, and in 1850 to 4½ *lákhs*, or say £45,000. Various causes, into which it is needless to enter here, were at work to bring about this result; and a series of remedies, unsuccessful because they did not go to the root of the mischief, were tried. Of one thing, however, there can be no doubt, viz. that notwithstanding all Read's care and zeal, he had in many cases over-assessed the soil. The *zamíndárs* had, before 1813, to some extent given satisfactory evidence that this was so, by reducing rates on 'wet' lands throughout by one-sixth, and on 'dry' land from one-eighth to one-fifth. The end soon came. Before the *zamíndárí* system had been in existence for five years, those in authority began to hesitate. Their first step in retreat from the false position which had been taken up was made in 1809, when, failing bidders for estates sold for arrears, the Collector was empowered to bring them under his own management, a policy extended in 1813 by permission to buy in such estates at auction on behalf of Government. This politic step was afterwards modified by a restriction of the bid to the amount of the arrears.

On such estates coming under Government management, the District officers had opportunities for more closely studying the causes which led their owners into bankruptcy, consequent on which the conviction became fixed that, to insure stability of revenue, a reduction in the demand was needed. This, however, was only done in a hesitating and partial manner. Thus, in 1816, the assessment in the southern part of the District was reduced generally by 10 per cent.; and in 1818, the Collector was empowered to make a discretional reduction not exceeding 30 per cent. These benefits touched the *rayatwárí* lands only, and rightly so; for, apart from the fact that a reversion to the State as the direct landlord is the most important factor in securing prosperity to the tenantry of the District, the *zamíndárs* were even on equitable, much less on legal, grounds entitled to no consideration whatever, as, in fixing the *peshkash* (revenue) payable by them, the cultivated land alone had been taken into account, all the waste being made over free and for ever. In the present day it is hard, with telegraphic communication, and Salem within half a night's journey from Madras,

to realize the darkness in which the authorities formerly were as to the state of the District. Even Munro, when Governor of Madras, than whom no one then living took more interest in the District, was ignorant of important changes which had been introduced into the revenue system. The one thing plainly perceptible at Madras was that the revenue was diminishing and uncertain; the causes were unknown, or if known, wrong deductions were drawn from the facts. To stimulate the extension of cultivation, the suicidal panacea of the *kaul* tenure was resorted to in 1822. *Kaul*, ordinarily signifying an agreement of any kind, in the sense in which it is here used, indicates a tenancy under which the *rayat*, taking up fresh lands, pays no assessment for the first year, half rates for the second, and full rates for the third year. The terms of the tenancy may vary from this, but the principle is the same. The result was a foregone conclusion. *Rayats* already holding over-assessed or fully-assessed lands snapped greedily at the bait, and for the first two years or more, as the case might be, all went on prosperously; but in the year when Government should have reaped the full benefit of their concession, the *rayats* turned round and relinquished their new holdings. Many were the recipes devised to avert the necessary consequence of the measure. The *kaul* tenure was prohibited unless the *pattá* land was retained; the *rayats* should only resign good and bad lands in equal proportions, and might not cling to the one and despise the other. The system was doomed from its birth, and received its death-blow in 1850. As regards the over-assessed lands, the percentage reductions of 1816 to 1818, above referred to, affected the whole tract rateably, but had no operation towards effecting a reduction in cases where individual fields or holdings were over-taxed. Further reductions, but still only in the nature of a percentage reduction, were made in 1858 and 1859, and in respect of garden lands in 1864. But it was not until 1869 to 1874, when the settlement now in force was introduced, that the Government demand was universally fixed on equitable and scientific principles. Under this revision, the area under cultivation has risen from 1,050,000 acres, assessed at £173,000, to 1,210,000 acres, assessed at £180,000.

Tenures.—The District contains three *pálaiyams* or *zamíndárís* of importance,—Sulagiri, Bágalúr, and Berikái, all in the Osúr *táluk*. There are 133 *mittás* and a few *jágírs*. But the predominant tenure is *rayatwárí*, the tenant being liable to ejectment by the Government only in case of failure to pay his revenue. Every year he has the option of throwing up his holding or any field in it, and his assessment is fixed for thirty years. A *mittádár* has the right of collecting the *paimáish tirvai* or settled rent, a share of which he pays to Government as *peshkash*. The tenure cannot be reconverted into *rayatwárí*, if the

mittádár is in arrears. His right to collect the *tirvai* can be sold by Government, which does not itself enter the market as a buyer. The *mittádárs* are addicted to leasing their villages, often selling them in shares, and the lessees again sub-letting; the Hindu system of undivided families multiplies the *mittádárs*, their middlemen, etc.; the latter and the sub-lessees often get into debt, their rights in the villages being sold by the civil courts; Musalmán inheritance so works in a couple of generations as to produce, instead of one original *mittádár*, twenty or thirty such, all owning different shares in the village, according to sex and relationship;—these and other causes all combined often render the *rayat* uncertain as to who his landlord is. Perhaps two or three persons will at one and the same time, under colourable rights, distrain or attempt to distrain his property. For these reasons, the position of the *rayat* in *mittá* villages is unenviable. Added to this, he neither shares in the equitable revision of assessment which takes place in Government lands each thirty years, nor in the annual *jamábandí* remissions, granted by Government, when drought, flood, excess of rain, blight, or other accidents impoverish their tenants. If the decision of the civil courts is rightly interpreted to mean that *rayats* in *mittás* are liable to ejectment from year to year, this is not known to the landlords, or if they know it, they do not act on it.

Population.—The only Census of the District, from which safe deductions can be made, is that of 1871, though it is probable that for rough calculations the earlier enumerations were sufficiently near the mark. In 1800, the population was returned at 612,871; in 1835, at 905,190; in 1850, at 1,195,367. Since that time quinquennial Censuses have been taken; and in 1871, the regular Census showed a population of 1,966,995, or an average of 5 persons to each house. The males numbered 975,505, and the females, 991,490. Hindus predominated, numbering in all 1,901,060, or 96·6 per cent. of the population. Of Musalmáns, there were 52,312, or only 2·7 per cent.; and of Christians, 13,333, or 0·7 per cent. Amongst Hindus, the Sivaites outnumber the Vishnuvites by about 2 to 1, the other sects being only fractionally represented. Of Musalmáns, the great majority are Sunnís. Emigration is not considerable, but a few coolies go to Ceylon, the French colonies, and Burma. There is no immigration to speak of. More than half of the population is engaged in cultivation.

SALEM, the capital, is situated on the Tirumanimuttár, about 6 miles from the foot of the Shevaroys. It is a municipality, with a revenue of £3701 in 1876–77, and a population of 49,681. There are 11 other towns with a population of over 5000, of which TIRUPATUR (12,837) and SHENDAMANGALAM (11,783) are the most important.

Reading rooms or literary associations have been established at Salem, Yercaud (Yerkád), Osúr, and Tirupatúr. The chief source of charity is the Thopur Chattram Fund, from which *sarais* (native inns), etc. are being provided all over the District. Those at Salem, Thopur, Jollarpet, Atúr, and Tirupatúr are amongst the best. Besides the hospital and dispensary at headquarters, there are 9 dispensaries scattered over the District, and scarcely a large village is without its own cleaning and sanitary staff. Salem contains no shrine to compare in magnificence with those of Madura, Tanjore, or Srírangam; but pilgrims crowd to the sacred springs on the Tírthamalai, to Hanumatírtham on the Pennár, to the pagoda at Osúr, to the Adipadinettu at the falls of the Káveri (Cauvery), and to the festivals at Dharmapuri, Mecheri, and other places. The chief shrines where the Malayális worship are on the Shevaroys and the Chitterimalai Hills near Harúr. There are printing presses in the Collector's office and in the central jail, but no local newspaper is published, English or vernacular.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, about 3,777,060 acres are occupied by Government villages, the remainder being in *mittá* or *pálayam* villages. The total number of villages in the District is 3594, with 2870 hamlets, excluding those uninhabited, which number 427 and 151 respectively. According to the last quinquennial return, the cultivable area belonging to Government, exclusive of land reserved for public purposes, was 1,623,735 acres, assessed at £224,383. Holdings occupied 1,205,633 acres, assessed at £179,352. The number of registered *rayats* was 190,173, with 245,055 sub-tenants, making a total of 435,228. The *pattas* numbered 206,015, of which 139,768 were single and 66,247 joint. The staple crops are rice and *rágí* (*Elusine coracana*), the latter being almost exclusively the food of the labouring class. The yield is assumed, for purposes of assessment, to be 641 Madras measures of paddy or unhusked rice, and 347 Madras measures of the other three staples for the Talághát *táluks*, the out-turn in the Báramahál and Bálághát *táluks* being the same for paddy, but somewhat less on the average for dry grains. *Rágí* grows to perfection in the Bálághát, and above the average in the Báramahál. *Kambu* or spiked millet (*Panicum spicatum*) is about the same as in the Talághát; but gram, though remarkably fine, is an uncertain crop, and yields little more than half as much as the other staple grains. The greater portion (82 per cent.) of the classified area of the District consists of red soil, the *regar* or black cotton-soil occupying 16 per cent. (in the northern *táluks*, 20 per cent.), and exceptional or permanently improved land, 2 per cent. On a holding of 2 acres of 'wet' and 3 acres of 'dry' land, the net profit would not probably exceed £6 per annum, or about 10s. a month. The mass of the peasantry are in debt. The habit of indebtedness is so

ingrained in their nature, that if they all started fair to-morrow, 50 per cent. would be in debt again in a year.

One man is held to be sufficient for the ordinary daily labour on a farm of 3 acres of 'wet,' or 6 acres of 'dry' land, if assisted in the heavy work of planting, weeding, reaping, and threshing. His wages would be 480 measures of grain per annum = £1, 5s., plus an annual money payment of 6s. (the wages in the northern being lower than in the southern *táluks*). Twenty-seven measures of seed are required for an acre of 'wet,' and 6 measures for an acre of 'dry' land. Irrigated crops are weeded twice if sown broadcast, but once only if transplanted. 'Dry' crops are weeded only once. Manure is applied, as a rule, by treading in leaves on 'wet,' and penning out sheep on 'dry' land. For 'wet' lands, the average is 120 bundles of wild indigo or other leaves per acre, and this is supplied annually to all fields thought worth manuring. Eight pens of 200 sheep each, at a cost of 4 measures of grain per diem, is the usual allowance per acre for 'dry' lands. The highest Government 'wet' rate in the District is £1, 8s. per acre, and the lowest is £1, 3s. 1½d., exclusive of local cesses, the highest for 'dry' lands being 10s., and the lowest 6d. The cost of cultivating an acre of good black loam is about 18s. on irrigated, and 7s. 6d. on unirrigated lands in the northern *táluks*, the rates in the Talághát being somewhat higher, or 18s. 6d. and 9s. 6d. respectively. The customary rates of wages for unskilled labour are—for men, 3d.; for women, 2¼d.; for children (male or female), 1¼d. The Wadder or navvy caste get twice as much, but they generally do task-work, by which they gain more than by daily wages. The wages of a working goldsmith vary with the value of the materials, but may be taken on an average at 1s. per diem. A blacksmith gets 1s.; a carpenter from 1s. to 1s. 3d.; bricklayers from 9d. to 1s. 3d. During the ten years ending 1874, the prices at Salem town per *garce* of 9360 lbs. avoirdupois, in February and March, when the *rayats* sell, averaged £10, 6s. for rice, and £11, 10s. for *cholam* or great millet (*Sorghum vulgare*).

Natural Calamities.—In May 1872, and again in May 1874, the District suffered from cyclones which, though they did not, owing to absence of cultivation in those months, do much damage to crops, caused terrible mortality among cattle, and breached several tanks. In the autumn of 1874, heavy floods occurred, notably in the Pálár and the basin between the Pálár and the Yelagiri Hills. Many tanks were breached, and much property was damaged. The railway line was carried away in several places, and a considerable portion of the town of Vániambádi was swept away.

Blights are not uncommon in Salem, and locusts, caterpillars, and other insects devour the crops. Floods on a large scale are unknown. The Pálár, when in flood, occasionally causes loss to the river-side

landholders; and breached tanks, especially when a chain of tanks gives way together, cause damage, but more generally to property than to life. The severest famine of early years was that of 1833, when prices rose 71 per cent.; 1845-46 was a year of high prices, as also was 1857-58. In the famine of 1866, the following prices were reached between September and December:—Rice, 15s. to 17s. 6d. per cwt.; *cholam*, 8s. 6d. to 12s. per cwt. Works and relief houses were provided by Government for the needy. But this and all previous famines on record are dwarfed by the terrible calamity of 1877-78. There had been signs and warnings by which this might have been foreseen. The north-east monsoon failed both in 1873 and 1874. In 1875, the north-east monsoon was almost a total failure, especially the latter part of it; and in 1876, the south-west and north-east monsoons, on both of which the District depends for its water supply, failed almost completely. The pinch began to be felt in October 1876, but people still hoped. By November, the failure of the monsoon became an established fact; grain dealers took alarm, and prices rose at a bound. In August 1877, inferior rice had risen to a rupee for 11 lbs., and other grains when procurable were nearly the same price: as in ordinary years the price is from 20 lbs. to 30 lbs. for a rupee, the keen distress may be realized. During the first thirteen months of famine the mortality was 180,000, the average death-rate in other years being 50,000. It is estimated that altogether the District lost 10 per cent. of its population. Distress may be said to set in when normal prices are doubled, any rise beyond that rate involving famine. One result of the late famine has been, that attention was called to the neglected means of storing water. The Pálár and Káveri (Cauvery) might be utilized to a far greater extent than at present, and the Pennár (Ponniyár) carries untold wealth into the Bay of Bengal. In so far as the increased wealth of the population gives them more reserve to draw upon in time of scarcity, improved irrigation might do much for the District; but it cannot render certain a capricious rainfall, on which the majority of the tanks depend, and it cannot secure grass for cattle. The neglect of forestry is probably responsible for much. In the middle of the 16th century, the whole District was more or less a forest; it is not now easy in many places to find shade for a noon-day halt. Were it not for the railway, this last famine would probably have carried off a half of the population, instead of the 204,590 who perished from insufficient food, and the subsequent diseases consequent thereon.

Industries and Trade.—The chief industry of the District is weaving, which is carried on in almost every large town or village, and the weavers of Salem and Gházípur are especially noted. Carpets of great beauty and superior workmanship are made in the Salem jail. Good

iron and steel are made, but only on a small scale; an attempt to utilize the mineral wealth of the District by European capital having failed owing to the cost of charcoal. In Salem there are several cutlers whose wares are famed for temper and finish throughout India. Sugar, cotton, hides, indigo, saltpetre, salt, grains, betel, areca-nut, coir, jungle produce, etc., pass freely in and out of the District, but there is no trustworthy source of information regarding imports and exports.

Communications.—There are about 1386 miles of road in the District, on which the expenditure in 1875 was £15,590; but the state of the roads is not satisfactory. The length of railway line within the District is 134 miles. The principal passes are—the Chengama Pass, by which South Arcot is reached from Singárapet; the Morúrpatti Ghát, which lies between the Shevaroys and the Thopur Hills; the Thopur and Mukanúr Gháts, through which traffic reaches Dharmapuri from the south-east and east; the Ráyakottai Pass, which gives access from Krishnagiri to the Bálághát; the Manjanadi and Kottáipatti Passes, by which Uttankarai is accessible from Salem and Atúr respectively, on the south; the Anchittai Ghát, almost impracticable, by which the Bálághát portion of the Osúr *táluk* communicates with the valley of the Káveri.

Administration.—The imperial revenue of the District for 1874-75 was £294,318, of which land revenue contributed £227,507. Excise came next with £36,682; and stamps, £18,859. The other items of receipt are small, the forests being credited with only £5405. The total revenue in 1805-06 is returned at £191,786, of which the land yielded £182,348; in 1850-51, the total revenue was £196,693, and the land revenue, £177,535; in 1870-71, the total revenue was £302,091, and the land revenue, £232,191.

There are at present 24 magistrates' courts and 13 civil courts, including those of the revenue officers, covenanted and uncovenanted, empowered to hear rent suits. The number of covenanted officers is 6, including the two Assistant Collectors who have no separate charge. Exclusive of village watchmen, the District police in 1876 consisted of 2 officers, 20 inspectors and 1095 constables, or 1 policeman to every 6·86 square miles and every 1761 of the population. The cost of this force was £14,778, equal to about 1⅞d. per head of the population. The value of their services as a preventive force, when compared with the old police organization (dating before 1858), may be gauged from the fact that in 1875 there were only 2 gang robberies in the District against 212 in 1858. The District has 1 central and 16 subsidiary jails, containing (in 1875) 1598 prisoners, and costing Government £3493, or £2, 4s. per prisoner.

The education of the masses is chiefly got at the *payal* schools, where elementary teaching is given after a time-honoured but unscientific

fashion. In 1871, according to Census returns, there were only 190 schools in the District; but this cannot be supposed to include the *payal* schools. The Local Fund Act, passed in 1871, gave a stimulus to popular education by providing the funds for its extension; and in 1874-75 there were 230 schools, either belonging to Government or aided, which were attended by 7140 pupils. In addition to this, it is estimated that about 7200 children receive elementary education from unaided *payal* schools. Only 2·8 per cent. of the whole population could read and write in 1871, and of these only 276 were females. This is no fair indication of the present state of things, as the last ten years have been marked by extension of educational facilities. Regarding missionary effort, the field is divided between the London Mission, the French priests under the Vicar Apostolic of Pondicherri, and, to a small extent, the Lutheran Evangelistic Mission. The Roman Catholics outnumber the rest.

Medical Aspects.—On the lower hill ranges, fever prevails for a great part of the year. Strangers, especially if they drink the water, are most liable to attack, though the anæmic faces and enlarged spleens of the acclimatized population show that they have by no means an immunity from the scourge. In the plains, during the rainy season, large tracts are liable to a peculiarly weakening sort of fever, which in some years causes considerable mortality. The cause of this is not exactly known, as the fever does not always appear under given conditions; and occasionally one particular locality, noted for fever, may be free, while another, reputed for healthiness, may become the scene of an epidemic. Cholera rages through the District at times. The last outbreak commenced in August 1875, and the disease has not yet (January 1878) disappeared. The virulence of the disease may be estimated from one example. In the village of Kanakampatti, in three days 52 died out of a population of 200. The deaths from cholera, in 1875-76, were 15,487; in 1876-77, 45,162; and in 1877, from July to November, 8002. Small-pox has to a great extent been stamped out, though during the famine, when the population was peculiarly predisposed to disease, exceptional mortality occurred. Dengue was prevalent in the latter part of 1872. Leprosy is not common. Cattle-disease is rarely absent, rinderpest and foot-and-mouth disease being the most common forms.

Salem (*Selam*).—Chief town of Salem District, Madras, and a municipality, with the courts of the District Judge, Magistrate and *munsíf*, a central jail, 2 churches, memorial hall, schools, hospital, etc. Lat. 11° 39′ 10″ N., long. 78° 11′ 47″ E.; pop. (1871), 49,681, dwelling in 7922 houses. Ninety per cent. of the population are Hindus. The river Tirumanimutár divides the native town into two quarters. The Europeans live in a suburb named Hastanpet. The railway station lies in another suburb, Suramangalam, 3½ miles distant. Salem is a busy

trading place, with a considerable weaving industry. The town is clean, and well cared for. Its old notoriety for endemic fever and cholera has disappeared before the sanitary improvements of the municipality. The town is prettily situated, 900 feet above sea level, in a long valley with the Shevaroy Hills towering above. These hills are only 6 miles distant, and the ascent to the plateau is only 7 miles. Though never a place of any military strength, its position in a much contested District has made it the scene of frequent fighting. It was first captured by Captain Wood in 1768. The municipal income of Salem in 1876-77 was £3701; incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head of population (50,012) within municipal limits.

Salem (*Chinna Salem*, or *Little Salem*).—Village in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 38′ N., long. 78° 55′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5303, dwelling in 761 houses.

Sáletekrí.—Chiefship in Bálághát District, Central Provinces; comprising 71 villages; area, 284 square miles, chiefly hilly. This chiefship was probably one of the grants made for guarding the passes of the hill country, and has remained in the same family for many generations. The principal village is 50 miles south-east of Búrha. The country produces bamboos of the finest kind.

Salímábád.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4′ 50″ N., long. 88° 2′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), under 5000.

Salímpur.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated 20 miles from Lucknow city, on the road to Sultánpur. Pop. (1869), 2365, including some adjacent hamlets. Picturesquely situated on broken and high ground overlooking the Gumti river, the approach to it lying across a ravine spanned by a long bridge built since British annexation. Small Government school.

Sálkhiá.—Northern suburb of HOWRAH, the chief town of Húglí District, Bengal. Inhabitants largely engaged in river traffic. Permanent market.

Sálnadí.—River of Bengal.—*See* SALANDI.

Salon.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Rái Bareli District, Oudh, lying between 25° 49′ and 26° 19′ N. lat., and between 81° 16′ and 81° 39′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Digbijáiganj *tahsíl*, on the east by Ráipur and Partábgarh *tahsíls*, on the south by Fatehpur District in the North-Western Provinces, and on the west by the Rái Bareli *tahsíl*. Area, 434 square miles, of which 209 are cultivated. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers), 238,025, namely, 211,063 Hindus and 26,962 Muhammadans. Number of males, 119,084; of females, 118,941; number of villages or towns, 457; average density of population, 548 per square mile. This *tahsíl* comprises the three *parganás* of Salon, Parshádepur, and Rokhá Jáis.

Salon.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; recently transferred

from Partábgarh District. A picturesque and interesting tract, bounded on the south by the Ganges and on the north by Parshádepur *parganá*. It is also watered by the Sái river, and is covered with jungle, in which the Náin *tálukdárs* and other freebooters in the time of native rule built their forts. Wild cattle are found in large numbers. The banks of the river are steep and covered with brushwood. Area, 226 square miles, of which 110 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 120,545, viz. 109,630 Hindus and 10,915 Muhammadans. Of the Hindu population, 12,252 are Bráhmans, 6137 Kshattriyas, 15,940 Ahírs, 12,150 Chamárs, and 12,118 Kurmís. Of the Kshattriyas, 4099 belong to the Kanhpuria clan, who are the principal landholders, owning 98 out of the 287 villages comprising the *parganá;* Muhammadans own 78 villages. The Government land revenue falls at the rate of 3s. 4¼d. per cultivable acre.

Salon.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and headquarters of Salon *tahsíl* and *parganá;* situated on the road from Partábgarh to Rái Bareli town, in lat. 26° 1′ 40″ N., and long. 81° 29′ 50″ E. Pleasantly situated amid groves of mango and palm trees. Formerly a flourishing place, but now much reduced. Pop. (1869), 5155, viz. 2971 Muhammadans and 2184 Hindus, residing in 1026 mud-built and 85 masonry houses. Ten mosques; one Hindu temple. Government school. Average annual *bázár* sales, £1000.

Salsette.—Large island to the north of Bombay, extending 16 miles from Bhandára northwards to the Bassein inlet. Lat. 19° 2′ 30″ to 19° 18′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 51′ 30″ to 73° 3′ E.; area, 150 square miles. Connected with Bombay Island by bridge and causeway. The sea-face is fringed with islands, and is distinguished by several remarkable peaks. The central and highest, Thána (Tanna) Peak, is a flat-topped hill, 1530 feet high; on the north is another detached, sharp peak, 1500 feet above the sea. This beautiful island is rich in rice-fields, diversified by jungles and studded with hills. The ruins of Portuguese churches, convents, and villas attest its former importance, and its antiquities at Keneri still form a subject of interest. Seized by the Portuguese early in the 16th century, it should have passed to the English, together with Bombay Island, as part of the marriage portion of the queen of Charles II. The Portuguese in 1662, however, contested its alleged transfer under the marriage treaty, and it was not till more than a century afterwards that we obtained possession. The Marhattás took it from the declining Portuguese in 1739. The English captured it from the Marhattás in December 1774, and it was formally annexed to the East India Company's dominions in 1782 by the treaty of Salbái. Salsette affords a deeply interesting field for the geologist and natural historian, and it occupies several paragraphs in the official *Manual of the Geology of India*. It will ever be associated with the name of Victor Jacquemont,

as it formed the scene of his last labours; and from its jungles the brilliant Frenchman carried away the fever of which he shortly afterwards died at Bombay. The cave architecture of Salsette deserves notice. The great *chaitya* at Keneri, however, is pronounced by Fergusson to be merely a bad copy of the Karli cave. It belongs to the beginning of the 5th century, but 9 of its *viháras* seem to be of earlier date. Salsette had, however, a sanctity of its own early in the 4th century as containing a tooth of Buddha; at the period, says Fergusson, 'when these relics were revolutionizing the Buddhist world—at least at two diametrically opposite points of the coast of India, at Purí, and in this island. It may have been in consequence of the visit of this relic that the island became holy; and it may have been because it was an island that it remained undisturbed by the troubles of the mainland, and that the practice of excavating caves lasted longer here than in any series above described. Be this as it may, the caves here go straggling on till they fade by almost imperceptible degrees into those of the Hindu religion. The Hindu caves of Montpezir, Kanduti, and Amboli are so like them, and the change takes place so gradually, that it is sometimes difficult to draw the line between the two religions.'

Salt Range.—Hill system in Jhelum (Jhílam), Sháhpur, and Bannu (Bunnoo) Districts, Punjab, deriving its name from its extensive deposits of rock-salt. Lat. 32° 41′ to 32° 56′ N., and long. 71° 42′ to 73° E. The main chain commences in the lofty hill of Chel, 3701 feet above the sea, which is formed by the convergence of three spurs cropping up from the Jhelum river, and divided from the Himálayan outliers only by the interposition of the river valley. The most northern of these spurs rises abruptly from the river bank at Sultánpur, and runs nearly parallel with the Jhelum at a distance of 25 miles, till it joins the main chain after a course of 40 miles. It bears the local name of the Níli Hills. The second spur, known as the Rotás range, runs half-way between the Níli Hills and the river, parallel with both. It contains the famous fort of Rotás, and the hill of Tilla, the sanatorium of Jhelum District, with an elevation of 3242 feet above sea level. The third or Pabbi spur rises south of the Jhelum river, dips for a while on approaching the river valley, and rises once more on the northern bank, till it finally unites with the two other chains in the central peak of Chel. Thence the united range runs westward in two parallel ridges, till it culminates in the mountain of Sakeswar, in Sháhpur, which has an elevation of 4994 feet above sea level. Between these lines of hills, and topped by their highest summits, lies an elevated and fertile tableland, picturesquely intersected by ravines and peaks. In its midst nestles the beautiful lake of Kala Kahár. The streams which take their rise in the tableland, however, become brackish before reaching the lowlands. The beds of salt, from which the range derives its name,

occur in the shape of solid rock on the slopes of this tableland, and form the largest known deposits in the world. The mineral is quarried at the MAYO MINES, and at some other spots. Coal also occurs both in oolitic and tertiary strata; the former at Kálabágh, employed as a fuel for the Indus steamers, and the latter between Jalálpur and Pind Dádan Khán. It is of inferior quality, however, consisting of a brown lignite, difficult to set on fire, and yielding a very large proportion of ash. From Jhelum District, the Salt Range stretches into Sháhpur and Bannu. The long spur which projects into the former District terminates in the hill of Sakeswar, and comprises a number of separate rock-bound alluvial basins, the largest of which, the Sún and Khabbakki valleys, occupy the northern half, while the south consists of a broken country, cut up into tiny glens and ravines by a network of limestone ridges and connecting spurs. In the northern portion of the range, the drainage gathers into small lakes, and trees stud the face of the country; but southward, the streams flow through barren and stony gorges, interspersed with detached masses of rock, and covered with the stunted alkaline plants which grow on soil impregnated with salt. The Bannu portion of the range runs north-westward toward the Indus, which it meets at Mári, opposite KALABAGH, and rising again on the western side, is continued in the KHATTAK-MAIDANI HILLS. The scenery throughout the Range is rugged and often sublime, but wanting in softness and beauty. In many parts it becomes simply barren and uninviting. Besides salt and coal, many other valuable minerals occur in these hills.

Salt-Water Lake (or *Dhápá*). — Lake in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated about 5 miles east of Calcutta, between the Húglí and Bidyádharí rivers, and covering an area of about 30 square miles. Lat. 22° 28′ to 22° 36′ N., and long. 88° 25′ 30″ to 88° 30′ 30″ E. It contains a section of the Inner Sundarbans Passage for boats bound to Calcutta *viâ* Báliágháta. The vicinity of the Salt-Water Lake is intersected by innumerable water-courses and rivers, which flood the country at spring-tides. A part of the lake is now in course of reclamation, by the sewage of Calcutta being deposited in it.

Sálúr. — Chief town of Sálúr *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 30′ 40″ N., long. 83° 14′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 10,633, inhabiting 2383 houses. Sub-magistrate's court, post office, dispensary, and good school. Sálúr is the residence of the *zamíndár*, whose ancestors were feudatory to Jáipur (Jeypore), and afterwards to Vizianágaram. The latter power confiscated the estate in 1774, but the Company restored it to the old family twenty years later. The estate contains 177 villages, 20,870 houses, and (1871) 96,537 inhabitants, and pays a *peshkash* or fixed revenue of £3600.

Salwín (*Salween*).—River of Tenasserim, British Burma, with a

general north and south course. The source of this river has never been explored; but the best authorities agree in stating that it is in proximity to the source of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), far up in the snowy range which lies eastward of Assam in lat. 28° N., and forms part of the Himálayan system of mountains. After traversing Yunan, a Chinese Province, and the Shan and Kareng-ní States lying south of it, the Salwín enters British Burma at its extreme north-eastern corner, and for some distance, as far as the Thoung-yeng river, marks the eastern limits of the Province. In this part of its course, the Salwín is a broad, swift stream, navigable by boats, and flowing between high, densely wooded mountains. Farther south, these gorges become narrower; and near the mouth of the Thoung-yeng, the breadth of the stream contracts so much that at places its bed does not occupy more than 30 yards. A few miles lower down, and about 100 miles from the sea, are the great rapids, formed by a bar of rocks stretching completely across the river, and impassable even by canoes during the dry season. In the rains, when the Salwín is swollen by the vast volume of water brought down from the extensive tract of country which it and its tributaries drain, the current is so strong, and the violence of its efforts to pass the rocky ledge so great, that even massive logs of timber are dashed to pieces. Farther south are other but less formidable rapids, impassable in the rains. Below, there are numerous islands and shoals covered during the floods, when the water rises 30 feet. A few miles lower down, after the Salwín has received the Rwon-za-leng from the west, the hills on the eastern bank recede, and those on the western diminish considerably in altitude; and the river traverses a more open and level country, with outcrops of limestone on both banks, rising abruptly out of the plain into lofty serrated ridges. At Maulmain, the Salwín receives from the eastward the GYAING, formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bhwai and the Houng-tharaw, and the ATTARAN, which joins the Gyaing at its mouth. Here the Salwín splits into two mouths—the northern, flowing between Bhí-lú-gywon and the old town of Martaban, is unnavigable now by reason of sandbanks, but some centuries ago was the principal entrance. The southern branch flows past Maulmain, and falls into the sea at Amherst by a mouth 7 miles wide. By this channel vessels of the largest size can reach Maulmain, but navigation is rendered difficult by the shifting of the sands.

Vast quantities of teak from British and foreign forests are annually floated down the Salwín, and shipped at Maulmain for export. The timber is dragged into the forest streams by elephants, marked, and then washed in the rains into the Salwín, by which it is carried down in whirling masses until checked by a rope stretched across the river at Kyo-dan, about 56 miles above Maulmain. Large numbers of salvors

assemble here in the season, and raft as many logs as they can, to be claimed by the owners, who pay salvage.

The area of the Salwín basin is 62,700 square miles; it is 800 miles in length, but seldom more than 100 miles in breadth. The upper part is conterminous on the east with that of the Me-kong or Cambodia river; lower down, it is bounded by the Meinam river, which belongs to Siam. The length of the main stream of the Salwín is estimated at 750 miles.

Salwín Hill Tracts.—A British District in Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extending from the northern frontier southwards to Kaw-ka-rit on the Salwín river, and occupying the whole of the country between that river on the east and the Poung-loung Mountains on the west. On the north it is bounded by Kareng-ní (Kareng-nee), on the east by Zeng-mai, on the south by Amherst and Shwe-gyeng, and on the west by Shwe-gyeng and Toung-ngú (Toung-ngoo). Estimated area, 4646 square miles; population (1872), 26,117 souls. From the annexation of Pegu until 1872, the Hill Tracts formed a Subdivision of Shwe-gyeng District, but in that year they were erected into a separate jurisdiction. The administrative headquarters are at PA-PWON.

Physical Aspects.—The whole country is a wilderness of mountains. Even the valley of the Rwon-za-leng, the principal river after the Salwín, is, strictly speaking, only a long winding gorge. The direction of the mountains, of which there are three principal ranges, is generally north-north-west and south-south-east, but the spurs from the main system appear to be thrown in bewildering eccentric masses. The slopes are so precipitous, and so densely wooded, that the passage by laden animals is in many places impossible, and that of travellers on foot difficult and fatiguing in the extreme. It is through these hills that Shan caravans come down annually to Rangoon and Maulmain; and with the exception of the routes used by them, there are no roads over which laden bullocks can pass, baggage being carried on men's backs. The country is drained by three principal rivers—the SALWIN, the RWON-ZA-LENG, and the BHI-LENG (Bhee-leng)—fed by numerous mountain torrents rushing down narrow ravines, over rocks and boulders, on their way to the larger streams, which partake of the nature of their impetuous tributaries, and dash themselves in foam over masses of rock, or whirl in wild eddies through ravines shut in by beetling crags and gigantic forest trees, covered with brilliant flowers or creepers. When these rivers emerge into the low country they entirely lose their picturesqueness, and sink into muddy streams, with no trace left of their former state but the rapidity of their currents. The Rwon-za-leng is navigable in the dry season as far as Pa-pwon. Within the limits of this District, the Bhí-leng is impracticable, except for rafts and small boats. The Salwín is impeded by impassable rapids.

The chief crops are rice and betel-nuts. The cultivation is almost entirely carried on in *toungyas* or nomadic clearings in the hills, except near Pa-pwon, and in the betel-gardens, which are permanent. The area under *toungya* cultivation in 1877 was 12,526 acres.

The population in 1872 was returned at 26,117; in 1877, at 26,649. The inhabitants are almost entirely Karengs; a few Shans are settled in the neighbourhood of Pa-pwon. The eastern portion of the Hill Tracts was formerly inhabited by Rwon Shans, whence the name Rwon-za-leng; but the larger number of these were brought away by Aloung-bhúra to what is now the Syriam township of Rangoon.

The revenue is raised almost entirely from the land and capitation taxes. In 1876-77, the receipts amounted to only £2491.

Administration. — The District is administered by an Assistant Commissioner, stationed at Pa-pwon, on the Rwon-za-leng. Under him are an extra-Assistant Commissioner and the *thúgyí* (Thoogyee) of the six circles of Pa-pwon, Kaw-lú-do (Kaw-loo-do), Kaw-ka-rit, Kha-daing-tí (Kha-daing-tee), Mai-waing, and Weng-hpyaing. For some years after the country became British territory, it was in a very unsettled state, but the risings were speedily quelled. In 1867, fresh and more serious disturbances broke out. A chief named Dípa attacked and plundered our villages, and threatened Pa-pwon; and from that time dacoities or gang robberies became frequent. This District forms the basis of operations of those who have purchased the right to fell timber in the vast teak tracts beyond the Salwín river. These foresters come up with large sums in cash, which they require for the payment of their work-men, or for dues to the various chiefs; and in consequence, the whole of the neighbouring country beyond our borders has become the haunt of men who acknowledge no fixed authority, but collect in bodies under some daring leader, fall upon the foresters, and attack our villages. In order to remedy this, the Salwín Hill Tracts were separated from Shwe-gyeng in 1872, and formed into a distinct administration, and the police were considerably strengthened. The Superintendent of the Tracts is *ex officio* Superintendent of Police, and in 1877 had a force under him of 17 subordinate officers and 227 men, of whom 12 were river police; of these, 158 were Karengs, who work well but will not serve for long. The constabulary is quartered at Kaw-lú-do, at Kyouk-gnyat, and Dha-kweng on the Salwín, with a strong reserve at Pa-pwon.

Samadiala Chabaria. — One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 5 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £650; £189 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £38 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Samadiala Charan.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £80; no tribute is paid.

Samadrala.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £800; £51 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sámaguting.—Outpost and former headquarters of the Nágá Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 45′ 30″ N., and long. 93° 46′ E., on a tributary of the Dhaneswari river, 2477 feet above sea level, about 67 miles south of Golághát in Síbságar District. Estimated pop. 746. Sámaguting was chosen as a British station in 1867, but abandoned in favour of Kohima in 1878. Information of the change reached me only in 1880, too late to insert Kohima in its proper place in Volume V. Kohima is better situated for the supervision of the Nágas; the site is healthy; the water-supply secured by an aqueduct; and the garrison strongly stockaded. There were the usual civil offices at Sámaguting, a charitable dispensary, and a police outpost at the foot of the hill on which the station is built. A few Márwárí traders settled there. The country round is inhabited by the Káchá tribe of Nágás. Rainfall, 63 inches.

Sámalkot.—*See* SAMULKOTA.

Sámarkha.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 36′ N., long. 73° 2′ E.; pop. (1872), 5231.

Sambalpur.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 2′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and between 83° 16′ and 84° 21′ E. long. Area (exclusive of the petty Native States attached to the District), 4407 square miles; pop. in 1872, 523,034. Inclusive of the attached Native States, Sambalpur is bounded on the north by Chutiá Nágpur; on the east and south by Cuttack District, Bengal; and on the west by Biláspur and Ráipur Districts. The administrative headquarters are at SAMBALPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Though included in the Chhatísgarh Division, Sambalpur forms no part of Chhatísgarh proper, either geographically or historically. The *khálsa* or Government portion of the District lies along the valley of the Mahánadi, and constitutes a centre round which are clustered the feudatory States and chiefships of BAMRA, KAROND, PATNA, RAIGARH, RAIRAKHOL, SARANGARH, and SONPUR, which are noticed in their respective alphabetical places. This tract spreads out in an undulating plain, with ranges of rugged hills rising in every direction. The largest of these is the Bará Pahár, a mountain chain which covers 350 square miles, and attains at Debrígarh a height of 2267 feet above the plain. The main portion of this network of hills is situated in a bend of the Mahánadi, by which river it is almost surrounded on three sides; but to the south-west an outlying ridge projects about 30 miles, as far as Singhora Ghát or Pass, where the road from Ráipur to Sambalpur winds through it. From this point the hills continue

in a southerly direction through Phuljhar, when they turn off abruptly to the westward. Singhora Pass has been the scene of many an action between the predatory Gonds of Phuljhar and their more civilised assailants from the Chhatísgarh country; and in 1857, our troops under Captain Wood, under Major Shakespear, and under Lieut. Rybot, had successively to fight their way through, when marching to the relief of Sambalpur. Another important range is that of Jarghátí, which crosses the Chutiá Nágpur road 20 miles north of Sambalpur town. This also afforded a stronghold to the rebels. Its highest point is 1693 feet above the plain. To the southward a succession of broken ranges run parallel with the Mahánadi for about 30 miles, the highest points being Mandhar, 1563 feet, and Bodápáli, 2331 feet. Of the isolated hills and small ranges scattered over the District, the loftiest are—Sunári, 1549 feet; Chelá, 1450 feet; and Rosorá, 1646 feet. The only important river is the MAHANADI, which rises in Ráipur District, and, after entering Sambalpur, flows east and south-east for about 65 miles, passing Chandrapur and Padmapur, till it reaches the town of Sambalpur. It then rolls on towards the south for 45 miles, as far as Sonpur, where it bends to the east, finally falling into the sea in Orissa. As far as Chandrapur, its bed is fairly free from obstructions, but from that point to beyond Bod, boulders, *jháú* jungle, and even trees impede its current. The principal affluents in Sambalpur are the Ib, Kelú, and Jhirá. The District is well cultivated, especially west of the Mahánadi, where, with the exception of the Bará Pahár tract, the jungle and forest have been completely cleared, nothing being left but mango, *mahua*, and other fruit-trees, and here and there a small patch of *sál*. Nearly every village has its tank, often large and deep, but nowhere faced with stone. The Bará Pahár Hills are covered with dense jungle; but scattered here and there, small villages, with a fringe of cultivation, nestle in the valleys. The *khálsa*, however, yields but little valuable timber. The chiefships contain tracts of *sál*, *sáj*, *dháurá*, *bije-sál*, and ebony; and in the Garhját States of Phuljhar and Ráirakhol spread vast forests of *sál*. In Sambalpur, the soil is generally light and sandy. Crystalline metamorphic rocks occupy the greater part of the District; but part of the north-west corner is composed of the sandstone, limestone, and shale, which cover so large an area in Chhatísgarh. In the north occur outlying patches of soft sandstone. Iron-ore is found in most of the chiefships and Garhját or Hill States, the finest quality being supplied by Ráirakhol. Sambalpur has excellent sandstone for building purposes. Limestone also abounds; and the Mahánadi, near Padmapur, contains large masses of this rock of a purity resembling marble. Gold dust is yielded by the Mahánadi and the Ib; and diamonds are occasionally found at the junction of these rivers, near an island called Hírakhudá or the Diamond Isle. In

neither case, however, is the supply such as to make the business of collecting remunerative.

History.—According to tradition, the first Rájá of Sambalpur was Balrám Deva, a brother of Narsinh Deva, the 12th Mahárájá of Patná, then the head of the Garhját States. (*See* PATNA STATE.) Balrám Deva obtained from his brother a grant of the jungle country lying beyond the Ung, a tributary of the Mahánadi, and gradually acquired a considerable territory by conquest from the neighbouring chiefs of Sargujá, Gángpur, Bonai, and Bámrá. His eldest son, Harí Náráyan Deva, who followed in 1493, settled the country now called Sonpur on his second son, Madan Gopál, whose descendants still hold it. During the next two centuries the power of Sambalpur steadily increased, while that of Patná continued to decline. When Ubhaya Sinh succeeded, in 1732, these aggressive chiefs first came in contact with the spreading power of the Marhattás. Some guns of large calibre were passing from Cuttack up the Mahánadi, in order to be transported to Nágpur. Akbar Ráya, the minister, caused the boatmen to scuttle the boats in deep water, and many Marhattá artillerymen were drowned. Akbar Ráya subsequently recovered the guns, and had them mounted on the Sambalpur fort. The Rájá of Nágpur sent a strong detachment to avenge the insult and regain the guns, but it was repulsed with slaughter. About 1797, in the reign of Jeth Sinh, successor to Ubhaya Sinh, another quarrel with the Marhattás arose. Náná Sáhib, a relation of the Nágpur Rájá, with a large party, was making a pilgrimage to Jagannáth, when he was treacherously attacked by the people of Sárangarh and Sambalpur, as well as of Sonpur and Bod. He pushed on, however, to Cuttack, where he found some Marhattá troops. Returning with these, after some severe fighting, he took prisoner the Bod chief and Príthwí Sinh, the chief of Sonpur. As soon as the rains were over, he appeared before Sambalpur, and regularly invested the town. Jeth Sinh, however, had meantime strengthened the fort, and it was only after a five months' siege that the Náná succeeded in crossing the moat and forcing the Samlái gate. After a fierce contest, the Marhattás captured the fort, and carried off Jeth Sinh and his son Mahárāj Sá as prisoners to Nágpur. Bhúp Sinh, a Marhattá *jamádár*, was left to administer Sambalpur on behalf of the Nágpur Government. Soon, however, he assumed an independent position; and when a large force was sent from Nágpur to compel his obedience, he called in the aid of the Ráigarh and Sárangarh people, and routed the Marhattás at the Singhora Pass. A second force was sent from Nágpur, and, assisted by Chamrá Gáonthiyá, whose enmity Bhúp Sinh had provoked by plundering his village, seized the pass, and almost annihilated Bhúp Sinh's army. The conquered chief fled to Sambalpur, and, taking with him the Ránís of Jeth Sinh, made his way

to Kolábirá. While there, he implored the help of the British on behalf of the Ránís; and Captain Roughsedge, with a portion of the Rámgarh local battalion, was sent to Sambalpur in 1804. Raghojá Bhonslá, the Rájá of Nágpur, however, remonstrated with the British Government for thus interfering with a country he had fairly conquered, and the British restored Sambalpur to him. For some years, the District continued under Marhattá rule, while Jeth Sinh and his son remained in confinement at Chánda; but Major Roughsedge pleaded their cause so energetically, that in 1817 Jeth Sinh was restored to power. He died in the following year. After some months, during which the British Government held the country, Maháráj Sá, his son, was made Rájá, though without the feudal superiority of his predecessors over the other chiefships; while Major Roughsedge was established at Sambalpur as Assistant Agent. Maháráj Sá died in 1827, and his widow, Rání Mohan Kumári, succeeded. Immediately disturbances broke out, the most prominent of the rebels being Surendra Sá and Govind Sinh, both Chauháns and pretenders to the chiefship. Villages were plundered to within a few miles of Sambalpur; and though Lieutenant Higgins drove off the rebels, it became necessary for the Agent, Captain Wilkinson, to proceed from Hazáribágh to Sambalpur. After hanging some of the insurgents, Captain Wilkinson deposed the Rání, and set up in her place Náráyan Sinh, a descendant by a woman of inferior caste from Baliár Sinh, third Rájá of Sambalpur. Náráyan Sinh accepted his elevation very unwillingly, foreseeing the difficulties which followed immediately on the withdrawal of the British troops. Balabhadra Sá, the Gond chief of Lakhanpur, was the first to rise, but at length he was killed at his refuge in the Bará Pahár Hills. In 1839, Major Ouseley became Assistant Agent at Sambalpur; and in the same year, great disturbances occurred, caused chiefly by Surendra Sá, who claimed the throne as being descended from Madhukar Sá, fourth Rájá of Sambalpur. In 1840, he and two of his relations murdered the son and father of Daryáo Sinh, chief of Rámpur, and were sent as life prisoners to the jail of Chutiá Nágpur. In 1849, Náráyan Sinh died without male issue, and Sambalpur lapsed to the British Government. The first acts of the new rule were to raise the revenue assessments by one-fourth; and to resume the land grants, religious or otherwise. The Bráhmans, a powerful community in Sambalpur, went up in a body to Ránchí to appeal, but gained no redress. In 1854, a second land settlement again raised the assessments everywhere by one-fourth. Such a system of exaction and confiscation produced its natural results. When the Mutiny broke out three years later, the sepoys released Surendra Sá and his brother from jail, who immediately proceeded to Sambalpur. Nearly all the chiefs at once joined them, though Govind Sinh, the rival pretender

of 1827, held aloof. Surendra Sá established himself with a large force in the ruins of the old fort, but was induced to give himself up to Captain Leigh. Soon afterwards, however, he escaped, and joined the rebels in the hills. From that time to 1862, the British troops in vain endeavoured to hunt him down. The most daring atrocities were committed by his band: villages friendly to the Government were plundered and burnt; Dr. Moore, a European officer, was murdered; and Lieutenant Woodbridge was killed in a fight on the Bará Pahár, and his head carried off. The proclamation of amnesty failed to win the submission of the rebels. In 1861, Major Impey was placed in charge at Sambalpur, and adopted a conciliatory policy. By lavish rewards to the chiefs who gave themselves up, he succeeded in dispersing the rebel band, and procuring the surrender in May 1862 of Surendra Sá himself. The next year, however, the disturbances recommenced. Sambalpur had recently been incorporated with the Central Provinces, and the opportunity was seized of the first visit of Mr. Temple, the Chief Commissioner, to present a petition praying for the restoration of native rule in the person of Surendra Sá. This was followed by the rising of Kamal Sinh, one of Surendra Sá's captains during the rebellion, and by the recurrence of aggravated outrages. At length, on 23d January 1864, Surendra Sá was finally arrested. No legal proof of his complicity with the rebels was forthcoming; but he was placed in confinement with some of his relations and adherents as a dangerous political offender, and since then profound peace has reigned throughout the District.

Population.—The Native States attached to Sambalpur District are elsewhere noticed in their respective places. (*See* KAROND, SONPUR, RAIRAKHOL, RAIGARH, BAMRA, PATNA, and SARANGARH.) The following statistics will therefore be confined to the *khálsa* country—the British District. A rough enumeration of the population was taken in 1866, but its results cannot be relied on in this District. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 523,034 persons. Although the latest estimate (1877) indicates a total of 549,714, the Census of 1872 still remains the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It showed, as already stated, a population of 523,034 persons, residing on an area of 4407 square miles, in 1710 villages or townships and 98,166 houses. Persons per square mile, 118·68; villages per square mile, 0·39; houses per square mile, 22·27; persons per village, 305·87; persons per house, 5·32. Classified according to sex—males, 264,847; females, 258,187. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 98,954, the female children 96,542. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 9; Eurasians, 12; aboriginal tribes, 184,715; Hindus, 362,739; Muhammadans, 2255. There are no Buddhists or Jains, and the Muhammadans constitute

less than 0·5 per cent. of the population, a proportion smaller than in any other District of the Central Provinces. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Savars (53,603 in 1872) and the Gonds (43,687), the remainder consisting of Kols, Bhíls, Bínjwals, Khonds, etc. Among the Hindus, in 1872, Bráhmans numbered 17,552; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Gaurs (60,026), Gandas (57,425), Koltas (54,258), Keuts (22,233), Telis (15,350), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 4. No town in Sambalpur District has a population exceeding 5000, with the exception of SAMBALPUR, the administrative headquarters (pop. in 1872, 11,020). Number of townships with from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 90; with from 200 to 1000, 655; villages with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 964. Sambalpur, the only municipality, had in 1876-77 a population within municipal limits of 11,695. The income for that year amounted to £480, of which £353 was derived from taxation, being 6½d. per head; the expenditure was £506.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4407 square miles, only 2089 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 746 are returned as cultivable. None of the land is irrigated. The Government assessment is at the rate of 4d. per acre of cultivated land, and 1½d. per acre of cultivable land. Rice forms the staple crop, and in 1876 occupied 990,590 acres. No wheat was grown, but other food grains were produced on 212,250 acres; while 67,100 acres were devoted to oil-seeds, 56,500 to cotton, and 10,520 to sugar-cane. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 2241 proprietors, of whom 1706 were classed as 'inferior' ones. The tenants numbered 47,522, of whom 44,381 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while only 3141 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land were returned as follows in 1876:—Land suited for rice, 1s.; for inferior grain, cotton, oil-seeds, or sugar-cane, 3d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were—rice, 3s. 8d.; gram, 3s. 5d.; cotton, 27s. 4d. The wages per diem for skilled labour averaged 7½d.; for unskilled labour, 3d.

Trade and Commerce.—The manufactures of Sambalpur are few and unimportant. The Koshtís, however, weave *tasar* silk cloth of an even texture and unfading lustre; and the Kánwárs manufacture vessels of brass and bell metal. Nearly every village also contains weavers of coarse cotton cloth, and the Sonárs make rude ornaments of gold and silver. The principal exports from the District are rice, oil-seeds, raw sugar, stick-lac, *tasar* silk, cotton, and iron. Principal imports—salt, refined sugar, European piece-goods, cocoa-nuts, muslins, fine cloths of native make, and metals. The chief trade is with Cuttack and Mírzápur. In the Orissa famine of 1866-67, no less than 30,178 *maunds* (about 1100 tons) of rice, valued at £10,171, were exported to Cuttack. None of the roads in Sambalpur is bridged or metalled. The chief

lines of communication are the roads from Sambalpur town to Ráipur *viâ* Sánkra on the Jonk river; and to Cuttack *viâ* Rairákhol and Angúl. Tracks also lead from Sambalpur to the Biláspur frontier, by Padmapur and Chandrapur, to Bínka, and towards Ránchí. The Mahánadi affords means of communication by water for 90 miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Sambalpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £19,560, of which the land yielded £8869. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £10,921; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 6; magistrates, 8. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 60 miles; average distance, 25 miles. Number of police, 335, costing £5404; being 1 policeman to about every 12 miles and every 1398 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 98, of whom 9 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £582. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 276, attended by 12,348 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The average temperature in the shade at the civil station during 1876 is returned as follows:—May, highest reading 114·5° F., lowest 44° F.; July, highest 108·5° F., lowest 73° F.; December, highest 92° F., lowest 42° F. The rainfall for that year amounted to 61·57 inches, the average being 55·76 inches. The climate of Sambalpur is considered very unhealthy. The prevailing disease is fever, especially from September to November. It proves most fatal to new-comers, natives as well as Europeans. Bowel complaints are also common and deadly, and cholera appears nearly every hot season, owing to the gatherings at the temple of Jagannáth at Purí. In 1876, two charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 11,055 in-door and out-door patients. The death-rate per thousand was returned at 25·18, the mean of the previous five years being 20·76, but these figures cannot be trusted.

Sambalpur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1684 square miles; pop. (1872), 224,576, residing in 624 villages or townships and 41,431 houses.

Sambalpur.—Principal town and administrative headquarters of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 11,020. The town is situated in lat. 21° 27′ 10″ N., and long. 84° 1′ E., on the north bank of the Mahánadi, which, during the rainy season, becomes nearly a mile broad, but at other times flows in a small stream 50 yards in width. Opposite the town and station, the river bed is a mass of rocks covered with thick *jháú* jungle; on each side the banks are richly wooded with mango and other groves, while to the south rises a stately background

of lofty hills. The town proper has been much improved since 1864, when a cart could only with great difficulty pass through the main street. To the north-west lie the ruins of the fort—a crumbling stone wall on the river face, and a few mouldering bastions. The moat can still be traced; but no gateway remains except that of Samlái, near the temple of the goddess of that name, who was apparently the tutelary divinity of Sambalpur. Within the fort stand several other temples, the principal of which are those of Padmeswari Devi, Bará Jagannáth, and Anant Sajjá, all built during the 16th century. They are of uniform design, and remarkable neither for elegance nor solidity. Beyond the fort extends the Bará Bázár, originally a mere market-place, but now a populous suburb. Besides the Government court-house and the Subdivisional office on the river bank, the principal buildings are the Commissioner's circuit-house, post office, a jail lately built on the standard plan, and 2 *saráis*, as well as a handsome terrace-roofed market-place. A native gentleman has lately built a dispensary with female wards, and a District schoolhouse. Till recently, cholera visited the town almost every year, owing chiefly to the influx of pilgrims returning from Jagannáth. Of late, however, sanitary precautions have done much to prevent the epidemic, and the increase of vaccination is gradually restraining the ravages of small-pox. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £480; incidence of taxation, 7¼d. per head.

Sambhal.—*Tahsíl* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the plain country between the Sot and the Ganges. Area, 463 square miles, of which 344 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 227,011; land revenue, £29,119; total Government revenue, £29,623; rental paid by cultivators, £62,502; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11⅝d.

Sambhal.—Municipal town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1872), 46,974, consisting of 18,417 Hindus and 28,547 Muhammadans. Stands in lat. 28° 35′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 36′ 30″ E., on the Alígarh road, 22 miles south-west of Moradábád town, and 4 miles west of the Sot river, in the midst of a cultivated and well-wooded plain. The modern town covers the summit of an extensive mound, composed of remains and débris of the ancient city. Two heaps of ruins, known as Bhaleswar and Biktes-war, mark the old bastions of the city wall. Headquarters of the Musalmán Government from the earliest period of Muhammandan supremacy. Capital of a *sarkár* under Akbar. Centre of local grain trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2138; from taxes, £1662, or 11⅜d. per head of population (34,871) within municipal limits.

Sámbhar.—Lake in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. It lies between 26° 52′ and 27° 2′ N. lat., and between 74° 57′ and 75° 16′ E. long., and is situated on the joint border of the Jáipur and Jodhpur

States, east of the Aravalli range of hills. The surrounding country is arid and sterile, being composed of rocks abounding in limestone and salt, and belonging to the Permian system; and it is supposed that the salt of the lake is derived from the washings of these rocks. The bottom consists of a tenacious black mud, resting on loose sand. When full, the lake forms a sheet of water measuring about 20 miles in length, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in breadth, and from 1 to 4 feet in depth. After the rains, in August and September, the waters of the lake begin to evaporate, and this process goes on almost uninterruptedly from October to June. During the ten years, 1835 to 1844, the Government of India, in order to repay itself a portion of the expenses incurred in repelling the predatory incursions of the Rájputs into British territority, took the salt-making into its own hands; but with this exception, the lake has been owned and worked jointly by the Jáipur and Jodhpur Governments from the 17th century to 1870, when the British Government became lessees under separate treaties concluded with the Jáipur and Jodhpur chiefs. The average yearly outturn of salt is 900,000 *maunds* (between 3000 and 4000 tons), and the cost of storage and extraction about 6 *pies* (three farthings) a *maund* ($82\frac{2}{7}$ lbs. av.). As soon as the salt is formed, native labourers of both sexes, belonging chiefly to the Barrár caste, wade out to it through the mud, and placing their hands under the salt crust, lift it off in good-sized cakes into baskets. A man brings to shore in this way about half a ton of salt a day. The salt is of three colours, blue, white, and red, the varieties being said to be due to the presence of microscopic algae. The bluish grey salt is commonest, and is much esteemed, particularly in the North-Western Provinces, whither it is largely exported. The white salt is most valued in Rájputána, particularly in Jáipur; while in the Muhammadan State of Tonk, the red is the favourite colour. The lake supplies nearly the whole of the chief salt marts of the Punjab, North-Western Provinces, and Central India. According to travellers in the early part of this century, the dimensions of the lake were larger than they are at present, and reached as much as 50 miles in length by 10 in breadth during periods of heavy rain.

Sambhuganj.—Town in Maimansinh District, Bengal; 3 miles east of Nasírábád. Pop. (1872), 2257. One of the busiest marts in the District for country produce of all kinds; large exports of jute. In 1876-77, the registered exports from Sambhuganj included 72,000 *maunds* of jute (mostly sent direct to Calcutta), 31,000 *maunds* of rice, and 9500 *maunds* of mustard seed. Seat of the court of the subordinate judge of Mádárganj.

Sameswari (*Someswari*, or *Samsáng*).—River in the Gáro Hills, Assam. Rising near the station of Turá, it flows first in an easterly direction along the north of the Turá range, and then turns south

through a picturesque gorge and finds its way into the plains in the Bengal District of Maimansinh. It finally empties itself into the Kanks river in *parganá* Susáng. Both in size and utility, the Sameswari is the most important river in the Gáro Hills. It is navigable upwards as high as Siju, about 20 miles within the hills. Here its channel is interrupted by a bed of granite rocks and rapids. In several other portions of its course it again becomes navigable for canoes. Valuable outcrops of coal have been discovered and surveyed in the Sameswari valley, but none has yet been worked. Limestone of good quality abounds on the river banks, and there are some curious caverns in the limestone formation. In its upper course are several magnificent gorges, with rocky cliffs, clothed in tropical vegetation. The water swarms with fish, including the excellent *máhsir;* and the Gáros are enthusiastic fishermen.

Sami.—Town in Rádhanpur State, Bombay; situated on the river Saraswatí, in lat. 23° 41′ 15″ N., and long. 71° 50′ E. Pop. (1872), 5486.

Sámnagar.—Town in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal.—*See* SYAMNAGAR.

Sampaji Ghát.—One of the passes connecting South Kánara District, Madras, with Coorg. Good road; practicable for wheeled carriages.

Sámpla.—*Tahsíl* of Rohtak District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 144,067; persons per square mile, 336.

Sámpla.—Town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 28° 47′ N., and long. 76° 49′ E., on the Rohtak and Delhi road, half-way between Rohtak town and Bahádurgarh. *Tahsíli*, police station, and post office.

Sámra.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 6′ N., long. 77° 36′ 25″ E.

Samrah Babdahá.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 5571.

Samrála.—*Tahsíl* in Ludhiána District, Punjab.

Sámthar (*Sampthar, Sumpter*).—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency and the Central India Agency; lying between 25° 42′ and 25° 57′ N. lat., and between 78° 51′ and 79° 11′ E. long. Area, 175 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 108,000; estimated revenue, £40,000. Sámthar is bounded on the north and west by Gwalior; on the south-west, south, and south-east by the British District of Jhánsi; and on the east by Jaláun District. The State of Sámthar was separated from Datiya only one generation previous to the British occupation of Bundelkhand. When the British first entered the Province, Rájá Ranjít Sinh requested to be taken into the friendship and under the protection of the British Government; but nothing definite was done till 1817, when a treaty

was concluded with him. The chief is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. He has received the right of adoption. The military forces of the State are 300 cavalry and 2000 infantry, with 35 guns and 150 gunners.

Sámthar.—Chief town of Sámthar State, Bundelkhand. Lat. 25° 51′ N., long. 78° 55′ E.

Sámulkota (*Chámarlakota*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° 3′ 10″ N., and long. 82° 12′ 50″ E., 7 miles north of Coconada. Pop. (1871), 5535, inhabiting 1782 houses. It was formerly a military station, but was abandoned in January 1869. The barracks, first built in 1786, still remain. Sámulkota is connected by canals with Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Coconada.

Sanala.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £270; £30 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 30s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sánand.—Chief town of the Sánand Subdivision of Ahmedábád District, Bombay; situated 16 miles west of Ahmedábád city, in lat. 22° 59′ N., and long. 72° 25′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 7229. Sánand is a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway line, 18 miles from Ahmedábád. Post office and dispensary.

Sanáwan.—Northern *tahsíl* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; consisting of a high central upland, almost barren, known as the *thal*, together with two strips of lowland along the banks of the Indus and the Chenáb. Area, 1330 square miles; pop. (1868), 75,172; persons per square mile, 56.

Sanáwar.—Plot of land in Simla District, Punjab. Made over by the British Government in 1852 as the site of the Lawrence Military Asylum. That building stands in lat. 30° 54′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 2′ 10″ E., on a hill facing Kasauli, from which it is 3 miles distant.

Sánchi.—Village in the Native State of BHOPAL; situated on the left bank of the Betwa river, about 5½ miles south-west of Bhílsa, and 20 miles north-east of the city of Bhopál. Sánchi is famous as the site of some of the most extensive and remarkable Buddhist remains in India, the centre of the great group described by General Cunningham under the name of '*The Bhílsa Topes.*'

The present village of Sánchi is situated on a low ridge of sandstone, the general direction of which is from north to south, the whole summit of the hill being covered with ruins. The hill is flat-topped and isolated, with a steep cliff to the eastward, and to the westward an easy slope, covered with jungle at the foot, and near the top broken into steps by horizontal ledges of rock.

The principal buildings which now remain occupy only the middle part of the level top, and a narrow belt leading down the hill to the

westward. They consist of one great *stupa* or tope, with its railing and other adjuncts; about ten smaller *stupas*, some now showing nothing more than the foundations; a stone bowl, 4½ feet in diameter and 2½ feet deep, supposed to have once contained Buddha's holy nettle, and other objects of antiquarian interest. The summit of the hill, on which these remains are found, has a gentle slope in the same direction as the dip of the strata; and the level of the court of the great *stupa* is some 12 or 15 feet below that of a ruined *vihára* and temple on the eastern edge of the precipice. The hill, which is about 300 feet in height, is formed of a light red sandstone, hard and compact in texture, but subject to split. This stone has been used for all the topes and other buildings where mere hardness and durability were required; but for the colonnades and sculptured gateways, a fine-grained white sandstone was brought from the Udáyagiri Hill, 3½ miles to the northward. The village is now very small; but the numerous ruins scattered over the hill between Sánchi and Kánakhera show that there once was a large town on this site.

Fergusson (*History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, 1876, page 61) thus writes of this group of remains:—

'The principal of these, known as the Great Tope at Sánchi, has been frequently described, the smaller ones are known from General Cunningham's descriptions only; but altogether they have excited so much attention that they are perhaps better known than any group in India. We are not, however, perhaps justified in assuming, from the greater extent of this group as now existing, that it possessed the same pre-eminence in Buddhist times. If we could now see the topes that once adorned any of the great Buddhist sites in the Doáb or Behar, the Bhílsa group might sink into insignificance. It may only be that, situated in a remote and thinly peopled part of India, they have not been exposed to the destructive energy of opposing sects of the Hindu religion, and the bigoted Moslem has not wanted their materials for the erection of his mosques. They consequently remain to us, while it may be that nobler and more extensive groups of monuments have been swept from the face of the earth.

'Notwithstanding all that has been written about them, we know very little that is certain regarding their object and their history. Our usual guides, the Chinese Pilgrims, fail us here. Fa-Hian never was within some hundreds of miles of the place; and if Hiouen Thsang ever was there, it was after leaving Ballabhi (Valabhí), when his journal becomes so wild and curt that it is difficult, sometimes impossible, to follow him. He has, at all events, left no description by which we can now identify the place, and nothing to tell us for what purpose the Great Tope or any of the smaller ones were erected. The *Mahávanso*, it is true, helps us a little in our difficulties. It is there narrated

that Asoka when on his way to Ujjain, of which place he had been nominated governor, tarried some time at Chétyagiri, or, as it is elsewhere called, Wessanagara, the modern Bísnagar, close to Sánchi. He there married Devi, the daughter of the chief, and by her had twin sons, Ujjenio and Mahindo, and afterwards a daughter, Sanghamitta. The two last-named entered the priesthood, and played a most important part in the introduction of Buddhism into Ceylon. Before setting out on this mission, Mahindo visited his royal mother at Chétyagiri, and was lodged in "a superb *vihára*," which had been erected by herself. In all this there is no mention of the Great Tope, which may have existed before that time; but till some building is found in India which can be proved to have existed before that age, it will be safe to assume that this is one of the 84,000 topes said to have been erected by Asoka. Had Sánchi been one of the eight cities which obtained relics of Buddha at the funeral pyre, the case might have been different; but it has been dug into, and found to be a *stupa*, and not a *daghoba*. It consequently was erected to mark some sacred spot or to commemorate some event, and we have no reason to believe that this was done anywhere before Asoka's time.

'On the other hand, two smaller topes on the same platform contained relics of an undoubted historical character. That called No. 2 Tope contained those of ten Buddhist teachers who took part in the third great convocation held under Asoka, and some of whom were sent on missions to foreign countries, to disseminate the doctrines then settled; and No. 3 Tope contained two relic caskets. One of these enclosed relics of Maha Moggalana, the other of Sariputra, friends and companions of Buddha himself, and usually called his right and left hand disciples. It does not of course follow that this *daghoba* is as old as the time of Buddha; on the contrary, some centuries must elapse before a bone or rag belonging to any mortal becomes so precious that a dome is erected to enshrine it. The great probability seems to be that these relics were deposited there by Asoka himself, in close proximity to the sacred spot, which the Great Tope was erected to commemorate. The tope containing relics of his contemporaries must of course be much more modern, probably contemporary with the gateways, which are subsequent to the Christian era.'

Sándi.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north and west by *parganás* Báwan, Barwán, and Katiári; on the south-west and south by the Ganges and *parganá* Bílgrám; and on the east by *parganá* Bangar. The *parganá* is intersected by the Garra river from north to south, and the Rámganga flows irregularly along or near its western and south-western border. It is divided into two distinct portions by an irregular sandy ridge, which, running from north to south immediately to the east of Sándi town, marks the bank of an ancient

channel of the Ganges, long since abandoned by the river in its gradual westward recession. All the villages on and to the east of this ridge are poor, uneven, and sandy. Irrigation is scanty and difficult. On the other hand, all the country to the west of the ridge, or about four-fifths of the total area of the *parganá*, is a distinctly alluvial tract, levelled and enriched by the floods of three Himálayan rivers, the Garra, Rámganga, and the Ganges, and by minor streams such as the Sendha. All this tract is *tarái*, that is to say, it has been scooped by fluvial action out of the adjacent *bangar* or original plateau; and in it the water level is always so near the surface that in the dry months percolation largely supplies the want of irrigation, while in the rainy season it is more or less completely flooded. It constitutes, in fact, the flood basin of the three rivers named above. In heavy floods such as those of 1871, a sea of waters spread from Sándi to Fatehgarh, 20 miles west. The rivers bring down a rich alluvial deposit locally called *seo*, which fertilizes the submerged fields and makes manuring unnecessary. The silt brought down by the Rámganga in heavy floods is sometimes spread 2 feet thick over the fields. Area, 168 square miles, of which 107 square miles are cultivated. Chief products—wheat, barley, rice, *bájra*, gram, *joár*, and *arhar*. Pop. (1869), 69,751, namely, 64,252 Hindus and 5499 Muhammadans. Of the 141 villages comprising the *parganá*, 80½ are held by Kshattriyas, 26 by Muhammadans, 11½ by Bráhmans, 5½ by Lodhs, 4 by Káyasths, 1½ by Ahírs, and 12 by Government. *Tálukdárí* tenure prevails in 30½ villages, *zamíndárí* in 61½, and *pattidárí* in 49. Government land revenue, £12,721; equal to an average of 3s. 9⅞d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 4¼d. per acre of total area.

Sándi.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sándi *parganá*; situated on the left bank of the Garra river, on the old route from Sháhjahánpur *viâ* Sháhábád to Lucknow. Lat. 27° 17′ 15″ N., long. 79° 59′ 45″ E. A considerable town, with a population (1869) of 11,123. It has a local reputation for the manufacture of a description of cotton carpets (*kalin*). Station of the opium department. Numerous handsome mosques and tombs of Muhammadan saints. A fine *sarái* or travellers' rest-house is situated in the market in the Nawábganj quarter of the town.

Sandíla.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Hardoi District, Oudh, lying between 26° 53′ and 27° 21′ N. lat., and between 80° 18′ and 80° 52′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Hardoi and Misrikh, on the east by Mahmudábád, on the south by Malihábád and Mohán, and on the west by Bílgrám *tahsíls*. Area, 557 square miles, of which 317 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 230,300, namely, Hindus, 204,438, and Muhammadans, 25,862. Number of males, 121,340; of females, 108,960; number of villages or towns, 416; average density of population, 413.

This *tahsíl* comprises the four *parganás* of Sandíla, Kalyánmal, Bálamau, and Gundwa.

Sandíla. — *Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Gopámau; on the east by Gundwa and Kalyánmal; on the south and south-west by Mohán, Aurás, Safipur, and Bangarmau; on the west by Bálamau and Mallanwán *parganás*. A poorly wooded tract, with a large area of barren and sandy soil. Area, 329 square miles, of which 170 square miles are cultivated. Chief products—barley, wheat, *bájra*, gram, *arhar*, *mash*, and *joár*. At the time of the survey, barley occupied a fourth of the cultivated area; wheat a fifth; *bájra* and gram together, rather more than a fifth; while another fifth was cropped with *arhar*, *mash*, *joár*, and rice. Other crops—cotton, sugar-cane, poppy, tobacco, and indigo. Pop. (1869), 137,275, viz. Hindus, 117,371, and Muhammadans, 19,904. Of the 213 villages comprising the *parganá*, 82 are held by Kshattriyas, 81 by Muhammadans, 41 by Káyasths, 5 by Bráhmans, 2 by Kurmís, and 1 each by Kalwárs and Lodhs. *Tálukdárí* tenure obtains in 114 villages, 70 are *zamíndárí*, 26 imperfect *pattidárí*, and 3 *bháyáchára*. Government land revenue, £19,255; equal to an average of 3s. 6⅞d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 9⅜d. per acre of total area. The principal land-holding families are Sayyid Musalmáns.

Sandíla.—Town in Hardoi District, and headquarters of Sandíla *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated 32 miles north-west of Lucknow, and 34 miles south-east of Hardoi town. Lat. 27° 4′ 15″ N., long. 80° 33′ 20″ E. The sixth largest town in Oudh, and the second largest in Hardoi District; pop. (1869), 15,786, viz. Hindus, 7629, and Muhammadans 8157, residing in 1114 masonry and 3986 mud-built houses. The town contains the usual Subdivisional civil and criminal courts, police station, dispensary, and Anglo-vernacular school. No buildings of special interest or antiquity. The *bára kambha* or hall of twelve pillars, a stone building, was erected about 150 years ago. Markets are held twice a week, at which *pán* and *ghí* are sold for export in considerable quantities. Station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line of railway. During the Sepoy Mutiny, two severe actions were fought at Sandíla on the 6th and 7th October 1858.

Sandoway (*Than-dwai*).—A British District in the Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 3667 square miles; pop. (1872), 54,725 souls. Bounded on the north by the Ma-í river, separating it from Kyouk-hpyú District; on the east by the Arakan Mountains; on the south by the Khwa river; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. Its extreme length is 136 miles; its breadth in the north 48, and in the south 24 miles. The administrative headquarters are at SANDOWAY TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Sandoway District is a mountainous country, the Arakan range sending out spurs which reach down to the coast. These

in their turn give off numerous sub-spurs, running for the most part parallel to the main chain. Not more than one-eighteenth of the area can be called plain; and except in this plain, and on the hillsides, where clearings are made for *toungya* or nomadic cultivation, the District is covered with dense forest. From the mouth of the Sandoway river northwards, the coast is indented with navigable and intercommunicating tidal creeks, by means of which communication can be kept up without going out to sea. Southwards, it presents a rugged and rocky barrier to the ocean, and has few available harbours. The rivers draining the District are but mountain torrents to within a few miles of the coast. The principal of these are—the Ma-í and the Tan-lwai, falling into the arm of the sea which divides Ramri (Ramree) island from the mainland; the Toung-gúp (Toung-goop), which enters the Bay of Bengal by several mouths, between lat. 18° 44′ and 18° 50′ N.; the Sandoway, a tidal river, navigable by the largest boats as far as Sandoway town; the Khwa, which falls into the sea in about lat. 17° 36′ N., forming a good anchorage for steamers and vessels drawing from 9 to 10 feet of water, though the entrance is rendered difficult by rocks and a sandy bar. The main range of the Arakan Yomas has in the north a direction south-east by south, but it gradually curves towards the west, and, at the source of the Khwa, runs nearly due north and south. In the north, some of the peaks attain an elevation of little less than 5000 feet, which falls to 3200 feet at Shouk-beng, where the Toung-gúp road crosses the range. South of lat. 18° 21′ 26″ N., the height rapidly diminishes, and at the sources of the Khwa is only about 890 feet. The chief pass is that from Toung-gúp to Pa-doung on the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) in Prome District, a route followed by the main body of the Burmese in their invasion of Arakan in 1784, but found impracticable for troops or laden cattle in 1825-26. Since then, the road has been considerably widened, and rendered fit for the passage of an armed force. It is now mostly used by traders from Pegu, and the telegraph line to Calcutta is carried along it. Another pass connects Khwa with Le-myet-hna in Bassein. The three most important timber-trees found in the District are—*pyeng-gado*, used in house-building and for railway sleepers; *eng* and *ka-gnyeng*, from which are extracted resin and oil respectively. *Pyeng-ma*, *theng-gan*, *ka-gnyoung*, and many other trees abound. The low ground within tidal limits is covered with dense mangrove jungle. Owing to the wild and inaccessible character of the greater portion of Sandoway District, its geological structure has received very cursory examination. The existence of cretaceous rocks was first established in 1872. Mr. Theobald says that they extend down from Kyouk-hpyú District, in lat. 29° 30′ N., certainly as far as Kyien-ta-lí in Sandoway, a distance of 94 miles. Limestone occurs about 4 miles south-south-west of Ma-í, where it is quarried

and burnt for local use. The rock is argillaceous, very homogeneous in grain, and occasionally seamed with calcite. Other outcrops, also belonging to the cretaceous age, are found in various parts of the District. Limestone, intermixed with the tertiary clays and sands of the lower lands, is abundant and very pure; yielding on analysis carbonate of lime (with traces of iron), 93·6 per cent.; insoluble clay, 6·4. Veins of steatite and white fibrous quartz also occur in the District.

History. — According to the palm-leaf chronicles, there reigned in Baranathi (Benares), at a time when the duration of human life was 90 millions of years, a descendant of the first Buddha of the present epoch, who had sixteen sons; to the eldest of whom, Tha-mú-tí-de-wa, was allotted the country now forming Sandoway District. For him the spirits or Nats built a city, Dwa-ra-wad-dí, near the modern Sandoway. Many ages later, Tsek-kya-wad-dí, the embryo Gautama Buddha, was King of Baranathi; and to his son, Kan-myeng, he gave all the lands inhabited by the Burmese, Shan, and Malay races. Kan-myeng came to Dwa-ra-wad-dí; dispossessed the descendant of Tha-mú-tí-de-wa, and was succeeded by kings of his own line, who ruled for a period represented by a unit followed by 140 ciphers. During the reign of Na-rien-da, the last of these monarchs, the country was attacked by the grandsons of a king who ruled in Mo-goung. The legend runs thus:—Arriving at the mouth of the Than-dwai (Sandoway) river, they failed in their attempts to find the city, owing to the devices of its guardian Bhí-lú-ma, or, as some say, to its miraculous power of soaring above the earth in times of danger. At length, the guardian, being propitiated, withdrew her protection, and the ten brothers then bound the city to the earth with an iron chain, and divided their conquest into ten shares, making Than-dwai ('iron-bound') their capital. But the eight younger brothers were slain in combat with the people, who appear to have risen against them, and the two elder fled. Henceforth Sandoway appears only as a province of the Arakan kingdom, ravaged alternately by the Burmese and Talaings until the conquest of Arakan by the Burmese in 1784. It was then formed into a governorship, and its *won* was one of the commanders of the Burmese army which invaded Bengal at the commencement of the first Anglo-Burmese war. The country was ceded to the British by the treaty of Yandabú (Yendaboo), in 1826; and on the withdrawal of General Morrison's army, one regiment of Native infantry was left at Sandoway. A few years later, the military headquarters were transferred to Kyoukhpyú, and subsequently the small detachment of two companies was also withdrawn.

Antiquities.—On the hills close to Sandoway are three small whitewashed pagodas, the An-daw, Nan-daw, and Tshan-daw. The An-daw

is said to have been erected in 761 A.D. by King Meng-tsek-khyúp, to cover a tooth of Gautama. The building is 242 feet in circumference and 63 feet high. The Nan-daw stands on a hill, and is 480 feet above the level of the plain, and 38 feet high; it is said to have been built in 763 A.D. by Meng-bra, to enshrine a rib of Gautama. The Tshan-daw is assigned to Meng-gnyo-kheng (784 A.D.), and covers a hair of Gautama brought from Ceylon. Three times a year, pilgrims resort to these pagodas, remaining one day at each temple on each occasion. Two stones inscribed in Sanskrit of the 8th century have been found near the Sandoway river. Silver coins struck by ancient kings of Arakan are occasionally met with, some of which have the dates and names in Burmese characters, whilst others bear Persian or Nágari inscriptions. Celts or stone implements are abundant.

Population.—Mountainous and forest-clad, the District seems to have been always sparsely inhabited, but the increase of population since the British occupation has, on the whole, been proportionately larger than in other parts of Arakan. In 1828, the number of inhabitants was 19,538; by 1852, it had risen to 42,886; and in 1872, the Census year, to 54,725, including 19,188 Burmese, 28,339 Arakanese, 2021 Muhammadans, 4731 Khyengs, 24 Shans, 171 Karengs, 86 Hindus, 16 Europeans, and 149 'others.' The number of travellers and sojourners was given at 3413, not included in the returns. The population in 1877 was returned at 56,782, of whom 29,256 were males and 27,526 females. There are no towns in the District with more than 2000 inhabitants, and by far the greater number of villages have fewer than 200; 62 only having from 200 to 400, and 4 from 500 to 1000 inhabitants. These are nearly all situated in the country between the sea-coast and the slopes of the Arakan Yomas. The chief places in the District are—SANDOWAY, the administrative headquarters, situated on the river of the same name, and containing the usual public buildings; pop. (1877), 1617: TOUNG-GUP (Toung-goop), on the Toung-gúp river, and headquarters of a township; pop. (1877), 1551: KHWA, a small trading village, with a population of 1029; KYIEN-TA-LI, a small village at the mouth of the river of the same name.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, viz. 3667 square miles, only 135 square miles are returned as cultivable, and about 72 as under actual cultivation. The chief crops are rice, sesamum, tobacco, cotton, pepper, sugar-cane, *dhani* palms, and yams. In 1877-78, the area under the various crops was as follows:—Rice, 34,468 acres; oil-seeds, 924; sugar-cane, 264; cotton, 522; vegetables, 629; *dhani* palms, 1862; other trees, 1428; and tobacco, 1876. Land suited for rice yields on an average 940 lbs. per acre. Sesamum and cotton are grown principally with rice in *toungya* or hill gardens. The cultivation of tobacco is extending; the best is grown on the alluvial soil deposited

during the south-west monsoon by the torrents of the Yoma range in their short course to the sea. The Cuba plant was introduced by Captain (now Sir A. P.) Phayre and Captain (now Lieutenant-General) Fytche, and thrives well; but it is considered by the natives inferior in flavour to their own tobacco, which is said to have been originally brought from China. Madder is produced near the Khwa, and the cultivation is very profitable; it is exported to Bassein. As an almost universal rule, the land in the plains is held by small proprietors directly from the State; the average size of the holdings is 5 acres. Land is not often mortgaged, but very high interest is charged for loans. If a large amount is required, the land is generally made over to the mortgagee for several years for the payment of a lump sum, on which no other interest is charged. Labourers engaged for ploughing receive 2 rupees, or 4s., per acre and their food; and when hired for transplanting or reaping, a bushel of grain per diem. When land is leased out, the rent is almost invariably paid in kind, and averages one-third of the yield. In 1877-78, the average price of cotton per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 12s.; rice, 3s.; sugar, 19s. 9d.; salt, 2s. 3d.; tobacco, £1, 16s.

Manufactures, etc.—The most important manufacture is thatch from the leaves of the Nípa palm, which is in great demand in Akyab and Kyouk-hpyú, as well as locally. Cotton cloth and silk dresses are woven by the women in almost every house. The silk used is obtained from the southern township, where silk-worms are bred, and from the valley of the Irawadi. There is a large export trade with Akyab, Kyouk-hpyú, and Bassein in rice, tobacco, sesamum, plantains, salt, salt-fish, *nga-pí* or fish paste, and boats. The imports consist of piece-goods, cotton twist, betel-nuts, crockery, and hardware. The total length of water communication in Sandoway District is 130 miles; of roads, 13½ miles.

Administration.—During the Burmese rule, the only regular revenue was derived from transit dues and a tax on land. Five baskets (each holding 40 lbs.) of grain in the husk were taken for each pair of buffaloes used, and half a basket was claimed by the keeper of the royal granary as 'wastage.' But there was no fixed rate, and the governors often exacted more. In 1828, it was calculated that every head of a family paid £1, 15s. a year to the Government, whilst the annual cost of living for four persons was only £4, 4s. In 1851, the revenue amounted to £8362; in 1871, to £11,744, including local funds. In 1877-78, the imperial revenue was £14,423; the local revenue, £580. The incidence of taxation of all kinds was 3s. 0½d. per head. In Burmese times, the country was administered by a *won* or governor, under whom were the *tsit-ke*, *myo-úk thúgyí*, and other subordinates. It appears from the records at Sandoway

that the *thúgyí* generally levied their demands thus:—(1) From married people, well off, with families, bond servants, cattle, etc., £1, 14s.; married people not so well off, £1, 10s.; married people dependent upon their own labour, or too old for work, and newly married people with means, 18s.; newly married people with little or no substance, 7s. *Hpúngyí*, the maimed and infirm, Government servants, and bachelors, were exempt from taxation. For some time after the British occupation, the country was in a disturbed state. It has now settled down into a peaceful District, administered by a Deputy Commissioner with extensive judicial powers, and the chief revenue authority under the Commissioner of the Division. Under him are the extra-Assistant Commissioners. The regular police consisted in 1877 of 226 officers and men, or about 1 policeman to every 18 square miles or every 267 inhabitants. There is a jail at Sandoway; the number of prisoners in 1877 was 164. The total cost was £1732, and the work done by prisoners realized £173. The hospital and civil dispensary are also at the headquarters town, and gave relief in 1876 to 85 in-door and 1873 out-door patients. Little education has, till lately, been given except by the Buddhist monks. The Census of 1872 showed that only 7·45 per cent. of the males under 12 years, 13·33 of those between 12 and 20, and 33·22 per cent. of those above 20 could read or write, while not a single girl or woman acknowledged this small amount of instruction. The Muhammadans were still more backward, as only 7·53 per cent. of the males under 12 and 11·11 per cent. of those over 20 were taught the merest rudiments of learning. In towns the children are better instructed, and in some cases learn both Arabic and Hindustáni. A middle-class school was opened in 1876, and had 44 pupils on the rolls at the end of the year.

Climate.—From November to February the dews are exceedingly heavy, and the nights very chilly, the terrestrial radiation thermometer often recording only 38° F. From February to May, dense fogs rise during the evenings, and the wind blows from the west. Towards the middle of May, storms of thunder and lightning are of frequent occurrence. The total rainfall registered in 1877 was 250·91 inches. The maximum temperature was 90° F., and the minimum 74° F. The town of Sandoway is considered by some to be the healthiest place in Arakan. The prevalent diseases of the District are agues and fevers.

Sandoway.—Chief town and headquarters of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 27′ 35″ N., and long. 94° 24′ 36″ E., on the Sandoway river, about 15 miles from its mouth, but only 4½ miles from the sea in a direct line. The town lies in a basin about 12 miles long by 1 broad, well cultivated with rice, and surrounded by hills, the only outlets being those through which the river flows. The larger portion of the town, which is laid

out regularly, lies on the left bank of the river; whilst on the right side is a long straggling suburb, buried in trees, and presenting the appearance of an independent village. It contains the court-houses, police station, market, jail, hospital, dispensary, and a circuit-house. Sandoway is a very ancient town, and is often mentioned in Arakanese history as the capital of a kingdom, or more probably a petty chieftainship. Its original name was Dwa-ra-wad-dí; but according to a current legend it was called Than-dwai (by which appellation it is now known to the Burmese and Arakanese, Sandoway being an English corruption), from its having been miraculously fastened to the earth by iron chains.

After the capture of Arakan town in 1824, a force was sent southwards to attack Ramri (Ramree) and Sandoway. General MacBean reached Sandoway on the 30th of April, and occupied the town without resistance. After the cessation of the war, it remained for some years the headquarters of the troops garrisoning Arakan. The garrison has now been altogether withdrawn. When the British first took this town the number of inhabitants was found to be 4500. In 1877-78, the population was returned at 1617. Sandoway carries on a small coasting trade in rice, vegetables, etc., and an overland traffic in silk and other piece-goods with Prome and Bassein over the Arakan Mountains valued at £2000 per annum. Owing to the numerous creeks intersecting the coast, boats can get as far as Akyab without entering the open sea. In the neighbourhood of Sandoway are the three pagodas of An-daw, Nan-daw, and Tshan-daw, to which pilgrims resort three times a year, spending one day on each occasion at each shrine.

Sandoway.—River in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. It rises in the Arakan Hills, and, flowing west-north-west, falls into the sea in about lat. 18° 31′ N. About 15 miles up the river is Sandoway town, which can be reached by large boats. The anchorage inside the mouth is from 5 to 6 fathoms; the tide is felt for a short distance above Sandoway town. About 50 miles from the entrance is a sulphuretted hydrogen spring in the bed of the river, the water of which attains a heat of 110° F.

Sandoway Myoma.—Township in Sandoway District, British Burma, sometimes called the central township. Bounded on the west by the Bay of Bengal. It comprises 14 revenue circles; chief town, SANDOWAY, on the river of the same name. In 1875, the cultivated area was 14,612 acres; products—rice, tobacco, sesamum, cotton, pepper, sugar-cane, cocoa-nuts, hemp, and miscellaneous garden stuff. Exports, agricultural produce; imports—European cotton and woollen goods, silk goods from Prome and Bassein, and earth-oil and lacquered ware from the latter District. Good communication by boat. The population are mainly engaged in husbandry, fishing, and weaving.

Sandoway Myoma.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2809; gross revenue, £2588, inclusive of Sandoway town. Products—rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and indigo.

Sandru.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, across the Himálayan range in Kunáwar. Lat. 31° 24′ N., long. 78° 2′ E. (Thornton). Said to be open during only two months of the year. Elevation above sea level, about 16,000 feet.

Sandúr (*Sundoor, Sandhur?*).—Native State within the British District of Bellary, Madras, lying between 14° 58′ and 15° 12′ N. lat., and between 76° 28′ and 76° 43′ E. long. Area, about 140 square miles, of which a large proportion is hill jungle. The State is bounded on the south by the Kúdligi *táluk*, and on all other sides by the Hospet *táluk* of Bellary District. The tract is elliptical in shape, stretching from north-west to south-east, and is almost entirely shut in by hills, which completely isolate it from the neighbouring country. The population of the State, not including the hill sanatorium of Rámandrug, is, according to the Madras Administration Report for 1877-78, 14,999 souls; the annual revenue from all sources somewhat exceeds £4500.

Physical Aspects.—One chain of hills on the western limits of the State is known as the Sandúr range (*q.v.*); and from the north, the Timmappa Hills run down to form its eastern boundary. These are crossed by three principal passes. On the east, the Yettinhalli or Bhimagundi *ghát* connects the State with Bellary; on the south-west, through the Oblagundi gorge, runs an excellent cart-road for through traffic. The Rámangundi valley between the two main converging ranges is the northern entrance, and has a good road to Hospet. The other principal elevations are the Rámandrug, Kumáraswámi and Kombatharavu plateaux. All these attain an elevation of about 3000 feet. The sides of the hills are in most places forest-clad, but indiscriminate felling and charcoal-burning have done much to keep down the more valuable timbers.

Several streams water the State. These, for the most part, find outlet in the Sandúr river or Núri Nálá through the Yettinhalli gorge, and feed the Daroji tank in Hospet. On the hills, tigers, leopards, pigs, porcupines, bears, *sámbhar* deer, and jungle sheep are found. The prevailing rock is a chloritic slate, often highly impregnated with oxide of iron, and crested in many places with mural ridges of ferruginous quartz rock, tinted with a variety of colours, from a steel-grey to a deep liver-brown. This rock often forms whole hills, always, however, overlying the slate. On the ranges generally, iron-ore is obtained. It is often of a rich quality, easily got at, and usually of a friable description. On Rámandrug, various coloured clays are procurable without difficulty. The prevailing soil in the valley is a rich heavy loam, interspersed here

and there with patches of black cotton-soil. In various parts, lime is obtained near the surface, chiefly in nodular form. The ascent to the Kumáraswámi pagoda passes over an extensive bed of lava conglomerate; and the same feature characterises part of the Rámandrug range.

History.—The founder of the Sandúr family was Malají Ráo Ghorpare, an officer in the army of the Bijápur King, whose son Biráji entered the service of Sivají the Great. The State had been previously held by a Bedar Poligár, but Birájí's son Sidají took Sandúr from the Bedars, and his conquest was confirmed to him and his heirs by Sambhají, the successor of Sivají. Sidají died in 1715, and was succeeded in Sandúr by his second son, Gopál Ráo, whose fate is involved in obscurity. All that is known is, that Sandúr was taken by Haidar Alí some time after his capture of Gooty (Guti) in 1779; that he began, and Tipú completed, the fort; and that Gopál Ráo's son, Siva Ráo, was killed in battle in 1785, in a vain attempt to recover his patrimony. In 1790, Siva Ráo's brother, Venkat Ráo, acting on behalf of his nephew Sidají, expelled Tipú's garrison, but did not attempt to occupy Sandúr till the fall of Seringapatam. The Peshwá then claimed the State as his own, and presented it to Yaswant Ráo Ghorpare, a distinguished officer of Sindhia's army, who belonged to the same family as the former holders. Yaswant Ráo did not enter into possession; and the widow of Sidají, who died in 1796, adopted Siva Ráo, a son of Khandi Ráo, the younger brother of Yaswant Ráo. The Peshwá made an unsuccessful attempt upon Sandúr in 1815; and at his request in 1817, the British Government, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Bassein, sent a force under Sir Thomas Munro to reduce it. In October of that year, the fort and State were surrendered. On Sir Thomas Munro's recommendation, Siva Ráo received as compensation a *jágír* of £1000. In 1818, however, after the downfall of the Peshwá's Government, Siva Ráo was restored to his State; and in 1826, he received a *sanad* from Government confirming the lands of Sandúr to him and his heirs free of any pecuniary demands. Siva Ráo was succeeded in 1840 by a nephew named Venkat Ráo, who died in 1861. His eldest son, Siva Shan Mukha Ráo, the present chief, being then a minor, did not receive the *sanad* till 1863. On the 24th January 1876, Lord Northbrook, then Governor-General, conferred on him the title of Rájá, as a hereditary distinction to be assumed by his successors on formal recognition of their succession. The Rájá has the entire management of the revenue and police of his State, and the duty of administering civil justice. In the administration of criminal justice, he is required to refer all cases calling for capital punishment for the orders of the Madras Government. The Collector of Bellary acts as Government Agent. The

chief holds a *sanad* conferring rights of adoption, granted by the British Government.

Population.—The population of Sandúr State in 1865 was 12,962. At the Census of 1871 it was returned as 14,994; and the Madras Administration Report for 1877-78 gives the number as 14,999. Of these, 12,800, or nearly 86 per cent., are Hindus; and 2153, or 14 per cent., Muhammadans. Of a male working adult population of 4849, nearly 70 per cent. (3231) are cultivators and labourers. In caste and race, the people are identical with those of the surrounding District of Bellary. On the plateaux, there is a hill tribe of hunters, called Bedars, divided into two clans. They are a healthy and industrious people; and although possessing peculiar customs, they are probably Dravidian-Hindus, and in no way connected with the aboriginal tribes, such as Malayális, etc.

Places of Interest.—The two places of most interest in the State are the important sanatorium of RAMANMALAI, situated 3150 feet above the sea, and used chiefly as a convalescent depôt for troops; and the temple of Kumáraswámi, of which Newbold gives the following description:—'It is situated near the basin of a ravine, not far from the summit of the south-west part of the range of hills that enclose the valley; and after an ascent of 4 miles. The temple is neither large nor magnificent, but has an air of antiquity, of which its whitewashed exterior and gilded cupola cannot entirely divest it. The *gopuram* faces the east; on the left of the entrance is the shrine of the goddess Párvati, consort of Siva; to the west is the image of her son Kumáraswámi, the presiding genius of the place; and to the right stands the shrine of the destroyer Siva. In front is a square pool called "Aguste Tirtha." In front of the *gopuram* is a small octangular column of hewn stone, at the foot of which lie three trunkless stone heads. The largest is that of the giant Tarakasam, slain by Kumáraswámi. The great festival occurs triennially, and at this the number of pilgrims has latterly amounted to 25,000 or 30,000; the temple revenue averages from 15,000 to 20,000 rupees (say £1500 to £2000) annually. A *Shasanam* in old Kanarese is still preserved, which grants the endowment of the temple. It was given in S. 615 (713 A.D.) by a king of the Marala dynasty, named Bijala Náyak.' The climate of Kumáraswámi is described as very agreeable, although, owing to its easterly position, it is not so cool as that of Rámandrug.

Revenue.—The revenue of the State is about £4500, of which £2400 is derived from land. The land revenue includes grants of land to dependants and service lands; and in all, lands to the annual value of £1250 are alienated. It has been the policy of the present Rájá to increase the security of the land tenures, and render them permanent. The *rayats* may cut wood for all agricultural pur-

poses free of payment; nor are they liable to be charged for firewood which they themselves carry home. The poorer classes are permitted to cut firewood and grass in the jungles, and to sell it in the *bázár* free of tax.

Sandúr (*Sundoor, Sandhur?*).—Hills in Bellary District, Madras. A range of hills about 15 miles long, running from south-east to north-west, ending abruptly near Hospet. This range forms the greater part of the western boundary of the native State of SANDUR, dividing it from the Hospet *táluk*. Rámandrug, 3150 feet above the sea, is the principal hill, and was selected as far back as 1846 for the sanatorium of RAMANAMALAI. The range consists of gneiss much weathered. The upper part of Rámandrug is clay ironstone, and the slopes consist of a variety of schistose rocks containing manganese and antimony. Tigers are found in these hills, and much useful wood comes from them.

Sandwíp (*Sundeep*).—Island in the Bay of Bengal; situated off the coast of Chittagong and Noákhálí, and part of the latter District, though under the civil jurisdiction of the Judge of Chittagong. Lat. 22° 24′ to 22° 37′ N.; long. 91° 22′ to 91° 35′ E. The largest of many *chars* formed by the MEGHNA as it enters the sea. For long, a process of diluvion went on in the south of Sandwíp, but the soil re-formed and reappeared in 1865 as the Kálí *char*, many miles long, lying parallel with the south face of the island, at a distance of about 2 or 3 miles. This *char* already acts as a bar to protect Sandwíp from further diluvion, and will eventually, in all probability, become attached to it by the silting up of the intermediate channel. Sandwíp early attracted the notice of travellers. Cæsar Frederick, the Venetian traveller, in 1565 described the inhabitants of Sandwíp as 'Moors;' and stated that the island was one of the most fertile places in the country, densely populated, and well cultivated. He mentions the extraordinary cheapness of provisions here; and adds that 200 ships were laden yearly with salt, and that such was the abundance of materials for shipbuilding in this country, that the Sultan of Constantinople found it cheaper to have his vessels built here than at Alexandria. Purchas (*circ.* 1620) states that most of the inhabitants near the shore were Muhammadans; and there are several mosques on Sandwíp Island two hundred years old. Sir Thomas Herbert (*circ.* 1625) bears testimony to the fertility of the island, which he describes as one of the fairest and most fruitful spots in all India. The cocoa-nut palm flourishes in Sandwíp, and the nuts are exported to Chittagong and Akyab. Sugar-cane is also cultivated to a great extent.

The island of Sandwíp figured conspicuously in the contests of the 17th century between the Arakanese, Muhammadans, and Portuguese (see CHITTAGONG DISTRICT), and during that period numerous forts were erected. In one of these, the Muhammadan troops took refuge in

March 1609, when the Portuguese landed on the island. But the fort was besieged and captured, and the defenders put to the sword. In 1616, Sandwíp was taken from the Portuguese by the Arakanese. In 1665, Sháistá Khán, the Muhammadan Nawáb of Bengal, determined to reconquer the island. An interesting account of his expedition, by the French traveller Bernier, was translated in the *Calcutta Review* for 1871, and is quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 243-246.

Until 1822, the island formed part of Chittagong, but in that year it was made over to the newly formed District of Noákhálí. It had, from the time when it came under British administration (1760), formed a constant source of disquiet. It afforded an asylum for the refuse of the river Districts from Dacca southwards, and had a mixed population of Hindus, Muhammadans, and Maghs, who formed on the island agricultural colonies, fishing settlements, piratical villages, and robber communities. The subordinate tenants kept up a bitter quarrel with the landholder-in-chief, and every class seemed to have a grudge against the rest, and some complaint to make to Government. But the firm administration of the British officials gradually produced its effect. A Commissioner was appointed to measure and partition the island. His appearance, however, was at first only the signal for new disorders. On the one hand, he complained of 'obstructions and difficulties' thrown in the way of executing his duty; on the other hand, the *tálukdárs* forwarded a bitter petition and lament. An enterprising native gentleman proposed, in May 1785, to relieve the officials of further difficulty by taking Sandwíp in farm. But the Government was resolved to have the work thoroughly done, and rejected his offer. Accordingly, the troublesome island was placed under the direct management of the Collector, who was ordered to conduct a land settlement. The administration of justice in Sandwíp was formerly under the authority of an officer called a *faujdár*, resident in the island. But from a report (dated September 1779) by Mr. Duncan, specially deputed to Sandwíp, it appears that when Government ceased to maintain a fortress on the island, the *faujdár* was no longer retained, and justice was administered by an inferior officer with the title of *dárogá*. This official had not, however, uncontrolled jurisdiction. From the year 1760, if not from an earlier date, he was entirely under the authority of the *náib ahad-dár*. It was the duty of the *dárogá* and his assistants to prepare cases for hearing; and on fixed days in each week the *náib ahad-dár* would sit in his court of justice, attended by the *dárogás*, *kánúngos*, and *zamíndárs*, to dispose of all cases brought before him. 'This court,' writes Mr. Duncan, 'took cognizance of all matters, civil and criminal—its jurisdiction being only restrained as

to matters of revenue, the cognizance of which rested with the *ahad-dár* in his separate capacity. In matters of debt, the court retained the fourth part of the sum in litigation, and enacted discretionary fines for theft, gang-robbery (*dákáití*), fornication, assaults, and the like.'

Among the miscellaneous inquiries conducted by Mr. Duncan in 1779, was one relating to complaints of slaves, or persons reported to be slaves, against their masters. 'This unfortunate race of mankind,' says Mr. Duncan, 'bears in Sandwíp a larger proportion to the other inhabitants than perhaps in any other District in the Province; there is hardly a householder, however indigent, who has not at least one slave, and the majority have many in their families. Their number also very soon increases by marriage, in which they are encouraged by their masters, the custom of the country being such that a free woman, on marrying a male slave, reduces herself and her family to be the perpetual slaves of her husband's master, who continues ever after to retain them in the same bondage.' One man alone was said to possess more than 1500 slaves. The principal cause assigned by Mr. Duncan for the great extent to which slavery prevailed in Sandwíp, was 'the extreme cheapness and abundance of grain in the island, so that as often as there is any scarcity in Dacca District, it attracts people to Sandwíp, where it has been common for many of them to sell themselves and their posterity for maintenance.' Although Mr. Duncan in 1779 set only 15 slaves and their families at liberty, yet none of his proceedings created more general apprehension than his taking cognizance of this particular grievance, because all the principal people were immediately interested.

From its low-lying position, Sandwíp is peculiarly exposed to inundation from storm waves, and suffered severely in loss of life and property by the cyclones of 1864 and 1876. The calamity of the latter year was the severest on record. The following account of the inundation is quoted from a report by Mr. Pellew, the Magistrate of Noákhálí:—'The people in the villages on the south-western coast stated that the inundation commenced with a wave at least 6 feet high, which burst over the land from the south-east. Very shortly afterwards, another wave, 6 feet higher, came from the south-west. These waves came suddenly, just like the bore, mounting up and curling over. The second wave is described as lifting the roofs of the houses, and whirling the contents—human beings, furniture, etc.—violently outside. The mat walls, with their wooden posts, were swept away, the latter being either broken off short or wrested out of the ground. All this was done suddenly; people described it as occurring in one second of time. Behind each wave the water did not fall again, but remained, so that after the second wave there was 12 feet of water over the land.

'In the centre of the island the water came up less suddenly. The Government Pleader at Harishpur was taking refuge from the storm in his new office. Suddenly an alarm was raised that the water was coming. He got on the wooden dais, but the water immediately covered this. He then went up to his neck in water, along a raised path, to the bank of his tank, which is about 12 feet high. He told me that the rising of the water did not take longer than two minutes from first to last, and that he was only just in time. The bank of the tank was not more than 10 yards from his office.'

In many villages whole families were swept away, and in some of the *chars* the entire population was destroyed. 'In the village of Neyámasti,' writes Mr. Pellew, 'one man was the sole survivor of thirteen; four men were the survivors of a household of twenty-five. The women have perished in immense numbers. Most of the men who remain are wifeless. In Kangáli Char, the Sub-Inspector of Police found nothing but two wild buffaloes alive, and the corpses of men, cows, and buffaloes. In Char Maulavi, out of 177 people, 137 died.'

For the first few days after this cyclone of 1876, there were several attempts at plundering, and demoralization prevailed among the low Muhammadan population. Men, in gangs and singly, armed with cudgels, bills, and hatchets, were, the Magistrate reported, wandering about the inundated tracts, and breaking open and looting all they could lay their hands upon, whether under the care of owners or not. This lawlessness was, however, rapidly suppressed; and the people soon returned to the sites of their former houses, and busied themselves in drying their grain and in saving what they could of their property. Throughout the devastated tracts, 'the demeanour of those who really bore the brunt of the storm was,' Sir Richard Temple states, 'marked by that enduring fortitude under suffering which distinguishes the native character.'

The number of deaths was officially estimated at 40,000, out of a total population of 87,016. Cholera set in soon after the cyclone had passed over. Although a large medical staff was immediately despatched to the District, the epidemic continued to rage to such an extent, that when Mr. Pellew visited the Sandwíp islands, the mortality from the plague threatened in some places to exceed that from the storm itself. The returns for thirty-three police-beats in South Sandwíp, with a population of 10,855 souls, gave the deaths by drowning as 1063, whereas those from cholera in the same tract had by December 1876 amounted to 764. The pollution of the tanks and water-courses, both by the salt-water inundation and by the corpses of men and the carcases of cattle, added to the other evils resulting from the cyclone; while the stench from the dead tainting the air throughout the inun-

dated tract aggravated the plague of cholera. Nearly all the scavenger animals—jackals, dogs, and even vultures—perished by the storm and the wave; and for weeks after the inundation the land was covered with the dead bodies of men and cattle, preserved by the salt-water from rapid decomposition.

Sángala.—Ruins in Jhang District, Punjab; standing on a small rocky hill, upon the border of Gujránwála District; now known as Sánglawála Tiba, and identified by General Cunningham with the Ṣákala of the Bráhmans, the Ságal of Buddhism, and the Sángala of Alexander's historians. The hill rises to a height of 215 feet above the surrounding plain on its north side, and slopes southward till it ends in an abrupt bank only 32 feet in height, crowned in early times by a brick wall, traces of which still exist. The whole intervening area is strewn with large antique bricks, great quantities of which have been removed during the last fifteen years. An extensive swamp covers the approach on the south and east, the least defensible quarters, with a general depth of 3 feet in the rains, but dry during the summer. This must have been a large lake in the days of Alexander, which has since silted up by washings from the hill above. On the north-east side of the hill, General Cunningham found the remains of two considerable buildings, with bricks of enormous size. Close by, stands an old well, lately cleared out by wandering tribes. On the north-west side, about 1000 feet distant, rises a low ridge of rock, known as Munda-ka-pura, 30 feet in height, also covered by brick remains. The earliest notice of the locality occurs in the *Mahábhárata*, where Sákala figures as the capital of the Mádras, situated upon the Apága rivulet, west of the Irávati or Rávi, and approached from the east by pleasant paths through the Pilu forest. The neighbourhood bears the name of Mádr-des to the present day. In Buddhist legends, the city reappears as Ságal, whither seven kings made their way to carry off Prabhávati, the wife of King Kusa. That monarch, however, met them outside the gates, mounted upon an elephant, and shouted with so loud a voice that his words were heard over the whole world, and the seven kings fled away in terror. Arrian, Curtius, and Diodorus all notice Sángala, 'a great city, defended not only by a wall, but by a swamp,' which was deep enough to drown several of the inhabitants who attempted to swim across. Alexander seems to have turned out of his direct line of march to punish the Kathœans of Sángala, who had withheld their allegiance. He stormed the outpost of Munda-ka-pura, crowded with fugitives from other cities, and then, breaching the walls by means of a mine, captured the town by assault. Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited Sákala in 630 A.D., found the fortifications in ruins, but traced their foundations for a circuit of 3½ miles. In the midst of the

remains, a small portion of the ancient city, 1 mile in circuit, was still inhabited, and contained a Buddhist monastery and two *stupas*, one of them founded by the famous Emperor Asoka. The accurate details of the Chinese traveller have been principally instrumental in settling the identity of Sánglawála Tiba with the historical site.

Sangamner. — Chief town of the Sangamner Subdivision of Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated 49 miles north-west of Ahmednagar city, in lat. 19° 34′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 16′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 9978. Sangamner is a municipality, with an annual revenue of £312. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Sangarh.—Northern *tahsíl* of Derá Gházi Khán District, Punjab; consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Suláimán Mountains and the Indus. Area, 668 square miles; pop. (1868), 39,246; persons per square mile, 58; number of villages, 76; area under cultivation, 107,900 acres.

Sángarhi.—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 58′ N., long. 80° E., 24 miles south-east of Bhandára town, and 3 miles south of the Seoní Lake (*vide* SEONIBAND). Pop. (1866), 4367. Local industries—the manufacture of cotton cloth, which is largely exported, and silk-spinning. Sángarhi derives its name from the ruined Afghán fort which commands it. The town stands on a gravelly soil, but is unhealthy, owing to the brackishness of the water supply from most of the wells. Police post, and flourishing Government school.

Sanghi.—Agricultural village in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 1′ N., long. 76° 37′ E.; pop. (1868), 5117, consisting of 4541 Hindus, 570 Muhammadans, and 6 Síkhs.

Sángli. — Native State in the Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay; consisting of six separate divisions—a group of villages near the valley of the Kistna; a second group between the Kolhápur territory on the west and Jámkhándi State; a third group in Sholápur District, near the junction of the Mán and Bhíma rivers; a fourth in Dhárwár District; a fifth just north of the town of Belgáum; and the last to the south of the river Malprabha and to the north-east of Kittúr in Belgáum. The State contains a total area of 896 square miles, and a population (1872) of 223,663 persons. The portion watered by the Kistna is flat, and the soil particularly rich. The remaining divisions of the State are plains surrounded by undulating lands, and occasionally intersected by ridges of hills. The prevailing soil is black. Irrigation is carried on from rivers, wells, and tanks. The climate is the same as that of the Deccan generally, the air being very dry, especially when east winds prevail. The most common diseases are cholera, small-pox, and fever. The chief products of the State are millet, rice, wheat, gram, and cotton; and the principal manufactures are coarse

cotton cloth, and native articles of apparel. The chief of Sángli is a member of the Patwardhan family, whose founder Haribhat, a Konkan Bráhman, rose to military command under the first Peshwá, and received grants of land on condition of military service. In 1772, Miraj descended to Chintáman Ráo, grandson of Govind Ráo Hari, the original grantee. Chintáman Ráo being a child of six years, the State was managed during his minority by his uncle Gangádhar Ráo. When the minor came of age, he quarrelled with his uncle, who attempted to keep him out of his rights. Eventually the estate was divided between them, the uncle retaining Miraj, and Chintáman Ráo taking Sángli. The revenue of Sángli was £63,518, and of Miraj, £47,980; the estates being respectively subject to a service of 1920 and 1219 horse. Chintáman Ráo, the father of the present chief of Sángli, became a feudatory of the British Government on the downfall of the Peshwá in 1818-19. In 1846, the East India Company presented him with a sword in testimony of their respect for his high character, and in acknowledgment of his fidelity and attachment to the British Government. Chintáman Ráo died in 1851. The chief of Sángli does not now pay any contribution on account of military service, having given up lands of the annual value of £13,500 in lieu thereof. The family hold a title authorizing adoption. The present chief is Dhundi Ráo Chintáman, a Hindu of the Bráhman caste. He ranks as a 'first-class' Sardár in the Southern Marhattá Country, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. This power, however, applies to his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated net revenue of £77,295, and maintains a military force of 822 men. There are in the State 42 schools, with a total of 1762 pupils. In consequence of abuses in administration, a British officer has recently been appointed to exercise direct control.

Sángli.—Chief town of Sángli State, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 51′ 35″ N., and long. 74° 36′ 20″ E., on the river Kistna, a little north of the confluence of the Wárna, and north-east of Kolhápur. Pop. (1872), 12,961.

Sángola.—Chief town of the Sángola Subdivision of Sholápur District, Bombay; situated 19 miles south-west of Pandharpur, in lat. 17° 26′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 14′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 5111. Sángola is a municipality, with an annual revenue of £115. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Sangrámpur.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 28′ 38″ N., and long. 84° 44′ E., on the river Gandak. Pop. (1872), 6181.

Sangri.—One of the Punjab Hill States. Area, 16 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 700. It is situated south of the river Sutlej (Satlaj), and formerly belonged to the Rájás of Kullu, whose main

possessions lay north of that river. Sangri was seized by the Gúrkhas, but they were expelled by the British in 1815, and the estate was restored to the Rájá of Kullu. The Kullu territories north of the Sutlej were, however, conquered by the Síkhs, and the Rájá took refuge in Sangri, where he died childless in 1841. On the country falling under British power after the first Síkh war, his nephew was recognised, in 1847, as chief of Sangri. The present (1876) Miáh of Sangri is Hira Sinh, a Rájput. He enjoys a supposed gross revenue of £100. The chief products of the State are opium and grain.

Sangu.—Subdivision of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, formed in March 1867. It comprises the tract of country between the rivers Sangu and Mátámuri. Owing to the manner in which the Census of 1872 was taken in this backward District, no separate details of population, etc. are available.

Sangu.—River of Chittagong, Bengal; rises in the range of hills dividing Arakan from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, near the hill of Kudáng. After a circuitous course of about 125 miles, generally northerly, over a rocky bed, it reaches Bandárban, from which town it takes a tortuous westerly direction through Chittagong District, and finally empties itself into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 22° 6′ N., and long. 91° 53′ E., about 10 miles south of the Karnaphulí. The Sangu is tidal as far as Bandárban; its bed here is sandy. Though shallow in ordinary times, during the rains this river becomes deep, dangerous, and rapid. In its upper reaches, the Sangu is called by the hillmen the Rigray Khyoung; midway, before entering the plains, it is known as the Sabák Khyoung. It is navigable by large cargo boats for a distance of 30 miles throughout the year. The principal tributary is the Dolu.

Sanivarsante.—*Kásbá* or administrative headquarters of Yelusavirashime *táluk*, in the territory of Coorg. The name of the village is derived from a weekly fair held on Saturday.

Sanján.—Small village in Thánú (Tanna) District, Bombay; believed to have been formerly a large town, and the place where the Pársís first landed in India. Known to the Portuguese, and long after their time, as 'St. John.'

Sanjeli.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 33½ square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £510. No tribute is paid. The chief is named Thákur Partáb Sinhji.

Sankaridrug (*Sanka-giri Durgam*).—Village in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 11° 28′ 52″ N., long. 77° 55′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1711, dwelling in 374 houses. Sub-magistrate's court, railway station, and telegraph office. The village is situated at the foot of the Durgam or Drug, a square mass of gneiss rising 1000 feet above the plain, completely terraced with fortifications, while half-way up, like a pearl set

in emeralds, a white mosque nestles amongst the rich foliage which still covers part of the hill. On the summit is a small plateau, with a good supply of water stored in the rock. Viewed from below, the hill is a source of interest to the geologist, from the very fine specimens of granite veins piercing the gneiss, which have been exposed in the course of ages.

The Drug was a place of great strength, and was not attempted by Colonel Wood in 1768, when he captured all the surrounding forts. The fortifications on the summit show traces of European engineering.

Sankarkati.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. Noted for its large and numerously attended fair held during the *Durgá-pújá*, *Dol*, and *Rath Játrá* festivals. Bi-weekly market.

Sankárnáinárkoil.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 10′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 34′ 35″ E., on the road from Madura to Travancore. Pop. (1871), 11,632, dwelling in 2793 houses. A large, well-built town, with fine temple and tanks; and the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Sankarpur.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 38′ N., and long. 79° 34′ E., 16 miles north-north-east of Chimár. Contains a modern fort of earth and brick, and has Government schools for boys and girls. Under the Marhattás, a cannon foundry was worked at Sankarpur, and some half-finished guns yet remain.

Sankeswar.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 15′ N., and long. 74° 31′ 30″ E., 27 miles north by west of Belgáum town. Pop. (1872), 8905. Post office.

Sankh.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in the west of Lohárdagá District, and after a tortuous course of 120 miles, first south-westerly and then south-easterly, joins the South Koel in Gangpur State. The united stream, under the name of the Bráhmaní, enters the sea in the north of Orissa. The confluence of the South Koel and the Sankh is the most picturesque spot in Gangpur. Local tradition asserts it to be the scene of the amour of the Sage Parásuram with the fisherman's daughter Matsya Gandhá, the offspring of which was Vyása, the reputed compiler of the *Veda* and the *Mahábhárata*.

Sankhatra.—Municipal town in Siálkot (Sealkote) District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 13′ N., long. 74° 58′ E.; pop. (1876-77), 2391; municipal revenue (1876-77), £75; incidence of taxation, 7½d. per head.

Sánkhund.—Spring in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; so called from the monster *sankh* or shell Panchajanya, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, the sound of which filled the breasts of the enemy with dismay. This shell is said to have rested beneath the waters of the spring, and its impression on the bank—three feet in length by a foot and a half wide—is still shown.

Sankisa.—Village and ruins in Etah District, North-Western Pro-

vinces; identified by General Cunningham with the great city of the same name, which formed the capital of a considerable kingdom in the 5th century B.C. Distant from Etah town 43 miles south-east. Visited by Fa-Hian, about 415 A.D., and by Hiouen Thsang in 636 A.D., when it was a celebrated place of Buddhist pilgrimage, being the spot where Buddha descended again upon earth by three staircases of gold, silver, and crystal, after a residence of three months in the Triyastrinshas' heaven, preaching the law to his mother, Máya. King Asoka afterwards erected a pillar to commemorate the event, but no remains of it can now with certainty be discovered. The existing village is perched upon a mound of ruins, known as the *kilá* or fort, 41 feet in height, with a superficial extent of 1500 feet by 1000. A quarter of a mile southward is another mound, composed of solid brick-work, and surmounted by a temple to Bisári Devi. North of the temple mound, at a distance of 400 feet, lies the capital of an ancient pillar, bearing an erect figure of an elephant, wanting the trunk and tail. The capital has the well-known bell-shape, reeded perpendicularly with a honeysuckle abacus, as in the pillar at Allahábád; and it evidently belongs to the same period, the 3d century B.C. Hence General Cunningham considers it identical with Asoka's monument, mentioned by the Chinese Pilgrims, although the latter was said to be crowned by the figure of a lion—a discrepancy which the learned archæologist explains away by supposing that the trunk was already broken off in the 5th century A.D., and that the animal could no longer be distinguished at a height of 50 feet above the ground. South of the temple of Bisári Devi, again, at a distance of 200 feet, occurs a third small mound of ruins, apparently the remains of a *stupa;* while 600 feet due east is a fourth mound, 600 feet by 500, known as Nivi-ka-kot, which seems to contain the remains of some large enclosed building like a Buddhist monastery. The fort and the various mounds which surround the temple form a mass of ruins 3000 feet in length by 2000 in breadth, or nearly 2 miles in circuit; but this space appears only to enclose the citadel and the religious edifices which gathered round the three holy staircases by which Buddha descended upon the earth. The city itself, which surrounded the central holy enclosure, was girt by an earthen rampart upwards of 3½ miles in circumference, and still distinctly traceable in the shape of an irregular dodecagon. Three openings which occur in the rampart are traditionally pointed out as the gates of the ancient city. South-east of the Sankisa ruins lies the tank of the Nága, known as Karewar, and identified with a 'dragon tank' described by Fa-Hian. The city was probably destroyed during the wars between Prithwi Ráj of Delhi and Jái Chand of Kanauj. Other interesting ruins occur in the neighbouring village of SARAI-AGHAT, ¾ mile distant north-west.

Sankos (or *Suvarnakos;* so called from its golden sands).—River of North-Eastern Bengal, flowing through that low tract of country between the Himálayas and the Brahmaputra, where no river preserves its identity amid the frequent fluvial changes that take place year by year. It can only be affirmed that the name is given, in different parts of its course, to a river that flows southward from the Bhután Hills, and ultimately joins the Brahmaputra, in lat. 25° 52′ N., and long. 89° 52′ E. The main channel of this river forms the boundary between the Eastern and Western Dwárs, thus separating Bengal from Assam. Its chief tributaries are the Káljání and Ráidhak on the right bank, and the Gadádhar on the left. The name of the GADADHAR is commonly applied to the united stream.

Sann.—Town in the Mánjhand *táluk* of Sehwán Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated in lat. 26° N., and long. 68° 8′ E., close to the western bank of the Indus, at the mouth of a torrent that issues from the Laki Hills; on the main road from Kotri to Sehwán, being 11 miles north of Mánjhand, and 11 south of Amri. To the south-west of Sann is the vast but ruined fort of Rání-ka-kot, said to have been constructed by two of the Tálpur Mírs early in the present century, at a cost of 12 *lákhs* of rupees (say £120,000). Originally the river flowed near the walls, but when its course changed, the fort was abandoned. Sann is the headquarters of a *tappadár;* it also contains a post office, school, *dharmsála*, and a small police post. Pop. (1872), 1798, viz. 1362 Muhammadans and 436 Hindus.

Sanosra.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £403, of which £18 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £5 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sansar Dhára.—Grotto and place of pilgrimage in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 21′ N., long. 78° 6′ E. A waterfall gushes from a cleft in the rock, with a grotto behind it, in which stalactites are formed. The Hindus consider it sacred to Mahádeva, and visit it in considerable numbers. Distant from Mussooree (Masúri) about 12 miles.

Santál Parganás, The.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 48′ and 25° 19′ N. lat., and between 86° 30′ and 87° 58′ E. long. Area, 5488 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,259,287 souls. The Santál Parganás form the southern portion of the Bhágalpur Division. They are bounded on the north by the Districts of Bhágalpur and Purniah; on the east by Maldah, Murshidábád, and Bírbhúm; on the south by Bardwán and Mánbhúm; and on the west by Hazáribagh and Bhágalpur. The administrative headquarters are at NAYA DUMKA.

Physical Aspects.—Three distinct types of country are represented

in the Santál Parganás. In the east of the District a belt of hills stretches for about a hundred miles from the Ganges to the Naubil river. West of this is a rolling tract of long ridges with intervening depressions, covering an area of about 2500 square miles. The third type is exemplified by a narrow, almost continuous, strip of flat alluvial land about 170 miles in length, lying for the most part along the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. The total area of this alluvial tract is about 650 square miles. The undulating upland tract, which includes the entire Sub-District of DEOGHAR, with Pabbiá and the southern portion of Goddá, is in many parts overgrown with jungle; and the gneiss, which forms the geological basis of the District generally, is here overlaid by the carboniferous shales and sandstones that form the Deoghar coal-field. The RAJMAHAL HILLS, which abruptly rise from the valley of the Ganges, were, until very recently, regarded as a continuation of the Vindhyán range of Central India. It has been found, however, that not only are they physically quite detached from the Vindhyán hill system, but geologically there is nothing in common between the two. The Rájmahál Hills occupy an area of 1366 square miles; they nowhere rise higher than 2000 feet above the sea, their average elevation being considerably less. The principal peaks are Morí and Sendgarsa, each about 2000 feet above the sea. The other hill ranges of the District are the Mahuasarhi, Rámgarh, Belpáta, Kumrábád, Lakshanpur, Salchála, and Sankara. Singanmát, a peak in the last-named range, is well known as a landmark for all the country round. Most of these hills are covered almost to their summits with dense jungle, and are difficult of access. There are, however, numerous passes through the successive ranges, along which good roads might without difficulty be made. The Ganges forms the northern and a large part of the eastern boundary of the Santál Parganás, and all the rivers of the District eventually flow either into it or into the Bhágirathi. The chief of these rivers are the Gumání, the Moral, the Bánsloi, the Bráhmaní, the Mor or Morákhí with its tributary the Naubil, the Ajai, and the Barákhar. None of them is navigable throughout the year. Picturesque waterfalls are formed near the villages of Kuskirá, Sinhpur, and Mahárájpur, and there are several mineral springs in the District. Game, large and small, is common throughout the Santál Parganás.

History.—The administrative history of the Santál Parganás is the history of the gradual withdrawal of the territory now comprised in the District from the operation of the general regulations, that withdrawal being throughout dictated by a regard for the peculiar national character of the two races of Paháriás and Santáls. The policy was in the first instance set on foot by Mr. Augustus Cleveland, Collector of Bhágalpur, in the rules which he proposed for the management of the

Pahárias between 1780 and 1784. These rules, which are referred to in the article on BHAGALPUR DISTRICT, were incorporated in Regulation I. of 1796, so that Cleveland has a fair claim to be considered the author of the non-regulation system. It followed, however, from confirming the Pahárias in possession of the hills, that disputes arose between them and the Hindu *zamíndárs* of the plains as to the right of grazing cattle and cutting timber along the lower slopes. Accordingly, in 1832, two Government officials were deputed to demarcate with solid masonry pillars the present area of the Dáman-i-koh or 'skirts of the hills.' The permission to Santáls to settle in the valleys and on the lower slopes of the Dáman stimulated Santál immigration to an enormous extent; and it might be supposed that the natural consequence of that immigration would have been the admission of the Santáls to the exceptional privileges which the Pahárias already enjoyed. But this measure, although more than once proposed, was not approved by Government; and the next phase in the history of the District is the Santál rebellion of 1855-56. The story of that rebellion, and the causes which led to it, would occupy more space than can here be given, but the reader will find an exhaustive account of it in my *Annals of Rural Bengal*, and a shorter sketch under article INDIA (*ante*, Vol. IV.). The Santáls, starting with the desire to revenge themselves on the Hindu money-lenders who had taken advantage of their simplicity and improvidence, found themselves arrayed in arms against the British Government. The insurrection was not repressed without bloodshed, but it led to the establishment of a form of administration congenial to the Santál immigrants; and a land settlement has recently been carried out on conditions favourable to the occupants of the soil.

Population.—No estimate of the population of the entire District exists previous to the Census of 1872. That enumeration disclosed a total of 1,259,287 persons, inhabiting 9872 villages and 230,504 houses; average density of the population, 229 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·8; houses per square mile, 42; persons per village, 128; persons per house, 5·4. The most thickly peopled portion of the District is the *zamíndárí* tract, where the average density is 241 persons to the square mile, varying from 160 to 392. Taking the Dáman-i-koh as a whole, there is a general average of 193 persons to the square mile, the greatest density recorded being 212 in that portion of the Dáman attached to Goddá, and the least being 161 in the Dáman of Nayá Dumká. Classified according to sex, the number of males is 629,716, and of females, 629,571, the proportion of males being thus exactly 50 per cent. of the whole population. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—males, 269,751, and females, 242,836; total children, 512,587, or 40·7 per cent. of the population: above 12 years old—males, 359,965,

and females, 386,735; total adults, 746,700. The excess of male over female children is explained by the fact that here, as elsewhere in India, the natives consider that a girl reaches womanhood at an earlier age than a boy arrives at manhood, and many girls are consequently returned as women. The abnormally large proportion of children—40·7 per cent. of the District population—is probably due to the fact that the aboriginal races are unusually prolific. The ethnical division of the population gives the following results:—Non-Asiatics, 120 (of whom 106 were British); mixed races (Eurasians), 92; and Asiatics, 1,259,075. Of the natives of India, 390,612 are returned as Hindus, besides 7076 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; and 79,786 as Muhammadans. Of the Hindus, 76,848 belong to the superior castes (Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Ghátwáls). The Goálás, cowherds and milkmen (of whom there are 74,529), form by far the most numerous caste in the District; the artisan castes number altogether 83,722 persons, of whom 27,954 are Telís (oilmen). The total number of persons belonging to aboriginal tribes is 557,277, of whom the great majority (455,513) consist of Santáls. The Pahāriás number 68,336. The other principal aboriginal tribes represented in the District are Naiyás (9179), Kols (8894), and Mals (8820). The total number of Santáls throughout the whole of the Bengal Provinces is returned in the Census Report of 1872 at 923,532, of whom just one-half are found in the District of the Santál Parganás. Mánbhúm comes next with 132,445; Midnapur has 96,921; the Native States of Orissa, 76,548; Singbhúm, 51,132; Hazáribágh, 35,306. The Santáls form 3 per cent., or more than one-third of the total number of the aboriginal races under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and they are certainly the best known to Europeans. The history of this interesting tribe, so far as it is ascertained, together with a description of their physical appearance, habits, and mode of life, will be found in Colonel Dalton's *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal.* The same work also contains an account of the Pahāriás, their customs, language, etc. Divided according to religion, the population of the Santál Parganás is made up in almost equal proportions of Hindus, who number 650,210, or 51·6 per cent., and hill people professing aboriginal faiths, who form 42 per cent. The remainder consists of Muhammadans (79,786, or 6·4 per cent.), and a very small sprinkling (392, or 0·03 per cent.) of Christians. Nearly all the converts to Christianity are obtained from the aboriginal races, who are engaged in agriculture; little effect has been produced upon the pure Hindus, or on the more civilised inhabitants of the towns. Two missions are at work in the District, one affiliated to the Church Missionary Society, with stations at Páljhári, Hirámpur, and Goddá; and the Santál Home Mission, which has its headquarters at Benagária. The population is almost altogether rural; only 6 towns contain from

2000 to 4000 inhabitants. DEOGHAR, the only municipality in the District, has a population (1872) of 4861.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple food grain of the District. *Járán* or *áman*, the winter crop of the year, is of two kinds—*báo*, which is sown broadcast; and *ropá dhán*, which is transplanted; of these, forty varieties are named. In the alluvial strip of country which runs along the eastern boundary of the District, rice is largely cultivated; and the lower slopes of the ridges in the undulating tract, as well as the swampy ground between those ridges, are also sown with rice. Level terraces are cut out of the hillsides, which thus present the appearance of a series of steps varying from one to five feet in height. These rice terraces are flooded as soon as possible after the rains set in, small banks being left round the edge of each plot to hold the water. Among the other crops of the District are millets, wheat, barley, maize, various pulses and oil-seeds, jute, flax, sugar-cane (of which four varieties are distinguished), cotton, and indigo. There are two seasons for sowing indigo: the spring sowings are put in the ground in March, and reaped in June; and the autumn or October sowings are also cut in June. No accurate statistics are available showing the area under different crops; and it is evident from what has been said regarding the physical aspects of the District, and the mode of rice cultivation in the undulating tract, that there would be considerable difficulty in estimating the aggregate area under rice. The food-grain crops grown in the District are, (1) rice, (2) *janirá* or maize, and (3) other grains, such as millet and pulses. Of this food-grain supply locally produced, rice forms eleven-sixteenths; *janirá* three-sixteenths.

Natural Calamities.—Blight of a serious kind is not known in the Santál Parganás. Owing to the completeness of the natural drainage, floods are almost impossible over a large area; on the rare occasions on which the crops in the alluvial tract have been injured by flood, the loss thus caused was more than compensated by the increased yield of the high lands. Drought caused considerable distress in the Santál Parganás in 1866, and again in 1874. In the former year the price of rice rose in July to 7½ *sers*, and in August to 6½ *sers* for the rupee; in the latter year the highest price was 10 *sers*. The fact of rice rising to 10 or 14 *sers*, or paddy to 20 or 25 *sers*, would indicate the approach of famine, and relief measures would become necessary. It has been remarked that abundant crops of wild fruit are usually concomitants of famine years; and this was the case both in 1866 and in 1874. The *mahuá* tree, which is very common in the Santál highlands, yielded in 1874 a bounteous crop of edible blossoms and seeds; and the mango was plentiful, and formed a sensible addition to the food supply of the people, who live much on wild fruits and herbs. In 1866, the people in this District, as in

other parts of Behar, were forced by want to eat the mangoes while still unripe, and thousands of deaths by cholera were the result. In 1874, relief was afforded on such a scale that the fruit was allowed to ripen before being plucked, and there was no outbreak of disease.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is carried on by means of permanent markets. The chief exports are rice, Indian corn, oil-seeds, *tasar*-silk cocoons, lac, small-sized timber, hill bamboos, and stone. The imports include European piece-goods, salt, and brass or bell-metal utensils for household use. The principal mart, both for railway and river trade, is SAHIBGANJ, on the Ganges. This place is most favourably situated on the deep channel of the river, which flows at all seasons close under the town; and the railway station is quite near. All the river traffic which passes Sáhibganj is registered. RAJMAHAL, on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway, is another important mart. Both Sáhibganj and Rájmahál mainly depend upon their through traffic. They are, in fact, depôts, where the agricultural produce of the trans-Gangetic Districts of Maldah, Purniah, and Bhágalpur is collected for transmission by rail to Calcutta. The manufactures of the District are insignificant. Iron is roughly smelted; coarse cloth is woven, a few bell-metal utensils are made, and indigo is manufactured on a small scale. There are altogether 260 miles of road in the Santál Parganás; and the District is traversed on the east by the loop-line, and on the west by the chord-line of the East Indian Railway —the total length of both lines, including a portion of the small branch connecting Madhupur with the Karharbári collieries, being about 130 miles. Coal is found in the District, but of such inferior quality that all attempts made to work it have failed. Stone is quarried by an English firm under leases from Government and the *zamíndárs*, and exported down the Ganges to Calcutta for use as road-metal. In 1876-77, the total registered exports of stone amounted to 628,600 *maunds*, valued at £125,720.

Administration.—In 1860-61, the total revenue of the Santál Parganás amounted to £22,680, and the expenditure to £16,845. In 1870-71, the revenue was £38,901, and the expenditure £14,391. It appears, therefore, that there has been a considerable increase in the District revenue, and a trifling decrease in the expenditure. As, however, no detailed returns are available for the earlier year, it is impossible to state to what causes these changes are due. The land tax forms the most important item of revenue, yielding £11,153 in 1870-71. The next largest item was excise, £10,707. There was no increase in the number of courts between 1860 and 1870; there were in each year 10 magisterial, civil, and revenue courts in the District. For police purposes, the Santál Parganás are divided into 7 police circles (*thánás*). In 1872, the regular police force

numbered 299 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4333. There was also a municipal police of 11 men, costing £80, and a rural police or village watch of 1326 men, costing in actual contributions from the villagers (exclusive of rent-free grants) an estimated sum of £478. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1636 men of all ranks, giving 1 man to every 3·35 square miles of area or to every 770 of the population. The total estimated cost (exclusive of rent-free grants of land) was £4891, equal to an average of 17s. 10d. per square mile and nearly 1d. per head of population. In the same year, the police conducted 5834 cases of all kinds, the percentage of final convictions to persons brought to trial being 46·2 per cent. *Dákáití* or gang-robbery is very uncommon, the explanation being that the people of the District are so poor that there is no inducement to the crime. Fifteen murders were committed in 1872, and no fewer than 190 true cases of cattle-lifting occurred. This offence has become more frequent of late in consequence of the rise in the price of hides. There were 2 jails and 4 lock-ups in the Santál Parganás in 1872. The average daily population of the Nayá Dumká jail in that year was 63·86, and in the Rájmahál jail, 118 prisoners. The cost of the jails, including police guard, amounted to £1822. Education has made rapid strides in the Santál Parganás during the last few years. In 1864, there was not a single Government school in the District; in 1870-71, there were only 47; and in 1871-72, 42 Government and aided schools. In 1872-73, owing to the admission of village *pathsálas* to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules, the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 101. The number of pupils in the State schools in 1870-71 was 832; in 1871-72, 1169; and in 1872-73, 2206. There were also in the last-named year 15 private unaided schools, with 101 pupils. For administrative purposes, the Santál Parganás are divided into 4 Sub-Districts, namely, (1) Nayá Dumká, (2) Rájmahál, (3) Deoghar, and (4) Goddá. There are 32 fiscal divisions (*parganás*) in the District. The gross municipal income of Deoghar (the only municipality in the Santál Parganás) amounted in 1871 to £188, 14s., and the municipal expenditure to £144, 12s.; rate of municipal taxation, 9¼d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Santál Parganás varies in the different tracts which have been referred to in describing the physical features of the District. The alluvial strip of land has the damp heat and moist soil characteristic of Bengal; while the undulating and hilly portions are swept by the hot westerly winds of Behar, and resemble in their rapid drainage and dry subsoil the lower plateau of Chutiá Nágpur. In this undulating tract the winter months are very cool, but the hot season is correspondingly trying. The average annual rainfall is over 50 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases of the

District are fevers of the ordinary type, bowel complaints, and skin diseases. The hill tracts of Rájmahál are very malarious. Epidemics of cholera and small-pox break out from time to time, but have been for the most part confined to the town of Deoghar. The death-rate in two selected urban districts in 1873 was 35·78 per thousand of the population; and in two rural areas, 18·46 per thousand. There are 4 charitable dispensaries in the Santál Parganás.

Sántalpur-with-Chádchat.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay. The two Subdivisions of Sántalpur and Chádchat together form an estate ruled by a number of petty chieftains. Bounded on the north by the Márwára and Singám estates, on the east by the States of Wáráhi and Rádhanpur, and on the south and west by the Rann of Cutch. The two estates measure together about 37 miles in length, and 17 miles in breadth. Area, 440 square miles; pop. (1872), 18,193; estimated yearly revenue, £3500. The country is flat and open. *Ghasiá* or self-produced salt is found in large quantities. There are no rivers, but many ponds exist, which in normal seasons retain water till March, when the inhabitants have to depend upon wells for their supply of water. Fever is common. The holders of this State are Járeja Rájputs, kinsmen of the Ráo of Cutch, by whom the country was conquered about 400 years ago. The ruling family hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In matters of succession they follow the rule of primogeniture.

Santapilly (*Sentapilli*).—Village and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* CHANTAPILLI.

Sántipur.—The most populous town in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the river Húglí, in lat. 23° 14′ 24″ N., and long. 88° 29′ 6″ E. Area, 7 square miles; pop. (1872), 28,635, of whom 13,953 were returned as weavers in the Census Report; municipal income (1871), £1589; rate of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of population. Sántipur is famous for its cloth manufactures, which were at first spread throughout the whole District, but afterwards became centralized in this town, owing to its being the site of a commercial residency and the centre of large factories under the East India Company. Considerable trade in local exports and imports. The *Rás-játrá* festival, in honour of Krishna, is celebrated at Sántipur on the day of the full moon in Kártik (October or November). The fair is visited by about 25,000 or 26,000 persons, and continues for three days, on the last of which there is a procession along the high-road. Sántipur is also a celebrated bathing-place.

Sáoli.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 5′ N., and long. 79° 50′ E., 7 miles east of Múl. Population chiefly Telingá. Manufacture of cotton cloth; and trade in cotton, cotton cloth, grain, groceries, and *gúr*. Sáoli has a weekly market, and contains Government schools for boys and girls.

Sáolígarh.—State forest, yielding teak and *sál*, in the north of Betúl District, Central Provinces. Comprises several blocks of hills between the Moran river on the east and north, and Rájáborái on the west. Area, 130 square miles.

Sáoner (*Sonair*).—Thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 23′ N., and long. 78° 58′ E., 24 miles north-west of Nágpur city, near the main road to Chhindwára, with which place a good branch road connects the town. Pop. (1872), 5295, chiefly agricultural. The Kolár river flows through the town, which stands on a fertile and well-cultivated plain. It has a circular market-place, with large masonry platforms, from which two broad metalled roads lead south-west and west through the most populous quarters, and are connected by a third street of similar character. Chief manufactures—cotton cloth, which is largely exported, and an inferior snuff, made by the Musalmán population. A large cattle fair is held weekly. Sáoner has a travellers' bungalow (rest-house), a handsome *sarái* (native inn), a police station, and a school, in which English is taught. The fort in the centre of the town, now ruined, must once have been large and strong. Tradition relates that it was built by Gauli chiefs before the days of the Gonds; but for many generations Sáoner has belonged to the Gond family of Swasthánik.

Saptagrám.—Ruined town in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* SATGAON.

Sar.—Lake in Purí District, Bengal. A back-water of the BHARGAVI river, situated to the north-east of Purí town; its length from east to west is 4 miles, and its breadth from north to south 2 miles. Lat. (centre) 19° 51′ 30″ N., long. 85° 55′ E. This lake has no outlet to the sea, and is separated from it by desolate sandy ridges, which are entirely destitute of inhabitants. The Sar is not used to any extent for fisheries; its water, however, is employed for irrigation when the rainfall proves deficient.

Sárá.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Alamnagar, on the east by Mansúrnagar, on the south-east and south by Gopámau and Báwan, and on the west by Sháhábád. A *parganá* with a rich fertile soil, and a large area occupied with *jhíls* and marshes. Area, 90 square miles, of which 49 are cultivated. The main products are wheat and barley, which occupy nearly one-half the total cultivated area. Pop. (1869), 34,972, namely, 33,375 Hindus and 1597 Muhammadans. Of the 87 villages comprising the *parganá*, 59 are owned by Chamár Gaurs. Only 1 of these villages is held in *tálukdárí* tenure, 40 in *zamíndárí*, 43 in imperfect *pattidárí*, and 3 in *bháyáchára* tenure. Government land revenue, £6013; equal to an average of 3s. 11⅛d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 1d. per acre of total area.

Sárágaj (or *Langla*).—Hill range in the south of Sylhet District,

Assam, running northwards as a spur from the State of Hill Tipperah. Estimated area, 81 square miles; height above sea level, 700 feet.

Saragúr (*Sargúr*).—Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 0′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 25′ E., on the right bank of the Kabbani, 36 miles south-west of Mysore city; since 1864 head-quarters of the Heggaddevankot *táluk*. Pop. (1871), 1626; municipal revenue (1874-75), £37; rate of taxation, 5d. per head. Owes its administrative importance to its healthy position, the neighbourhood being free from jungle.

Saráhán.—Town in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 30′ N., and long. 77° 50′ E., in a wooded amphitheatre, 3 miles from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and backed up by the snow-clad summits of the Kullu Mountains. Thornton describes it as the summer residence of the Bashahr Rájá. Tasteful houses in Thibetan style, with pent-roofs, balconies, and intricate carved woodwork. Handsome temple dedicated to the goddess Káli. Northern limit of the Bráhmans, none of whom reside to the north of the town. Elevation above sea level, 7246 feet.

Sarái Aghat.—Town and ruins in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 3276. Distant from Etah town 43 miles south-east, from SANKISA three-quarters of a mile north-west. Lies on either side of a ravine of the Káli Nadi. *Bázár* of well-built houses, leading to a central market-place. Police station, school-house. Trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed. Founded toward the close of the 17th century by three Afghán leaders, who came from Farrukhábád District, and built the Sarái Abdur Rásul and a mosque. West of the village stands a lofty and extensive mound, 40 feet in height and about half a mile in diameter, the northern portion being built over with brick houses. It bears the name of Aghat, derived from Muni Agastiya, the mythical regenerator of the Deccan. The houses on the top have been built of bricks from the mound, part of which has been honey-combed by excavations in search of building materials. Images of Buddha, together with gold, silver, and copper coins of all ages, frequently occur. In 1843, about £2000 worth were found among the ruins. Aghat probably formed part of the ancient city of SANKISA.

Sáraikalá. — Political estate in Singbhúm District, Bengal, lying between 22° 33′ and 22° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 53′ and 86° 13′ E. long. Area, 457 square miles; pop. (1872), 66,347, inhabiting 568 villages or townships (*mauzás*), and 13,675 houses. Average density, 145 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·24; houses per square mile, 30; persons per house, 4·9.

Sáraikalá.—Village in Sáraikalá estate, Singbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 41′ 52″ N., long. 85° 58′ 28″ E. Bi-weekly market for District produce and articles of trade. Bengalí school.

Sarái Sálih.—Town in Hazára District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 2887. Stands in the Haripur plain, of which it forms the ancient commercial centre. Considerable local traffic. Large colony of weavers. Goldsmiths from this place have been in the habit for generations of visiting Afghánistán and Central Asia in pursuit of their trade.

Sarái Sidhu.—Northern *tahsíl* of Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab; consisting of a lowland strip on either bank of the Beas (Biás) river, together with an extensive tract of barren upland. Area, 1748 square miles; pop. (1868), 65,734; persons per square mile, 87; number of villages, 244.

Sarái Sidhu.—Town in Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 35′ 30″ N., long. 72° 1′ E.

Sáran.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 25° 40′ and 26° 38′ N. lat., and between 83° 58′ and 85° 14′ E. long. Area (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879), 2654 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1872), 2,063,860 souls. Sáran forms one of the north-western Districts of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Gorakhpur in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by the Bengal Districts of Champáran and Muzaffarpur, the boundary line being formed by the river Gandak; on the south by the Ganges, which separates it from Sháhábád and Patná Districts; on the south-west by the District of Azímgarh in the North-Western Provinces, the Gandak again forming the boundary line; and on the west by Gorakhpur District. The administrative headquarters are at CHHAPRA, which is also the most populous town of the District.

Jurisdiction.—Sáran formerly constituted one District with Champáran. The revenue areas of the two Districts were not finally separated until 1866; but the magisterial jurisdictions were first divided in 1837. The Judge of Sáran still holds sessions at Motihári in Champáran. The subdivision of Sewán was opened in 1848, and a second subdivision at Gopálganj was sanctioned in 1875.

Physical Aspects.—Sáran forms a vast alluvial plain, bounded on three sides by the great rivers Gandak, Gogra (Ghagrá), and Ganges, and intersected by numerous *nadís* or water-channels, which flow in a south-easterly direction, and carry off the drainage of the District. The rivers run on a higher level than the adjacent country, which is therefore liable to inundation when they overtop their banks. Beneath these high banks, lie the basins in which the surface drainage primarily collects, to be discharged into the running channels at a lower stage in their course. The District has the shape of an isosceles triangle. The base, which is very irregular, lies to the north-west; one of the equal sides is formed by the Gandak, and the other by the Gogra and the Ganges; while the apex is at the south-east corner, where the

Gandak and the Ganges join at Sonpur. From this spot, the levels slope very gently up towards the western parts of the District. Kochai Kot, in the north-west corner, is 222 feet above mean sea level, while Sonpur is only 168 feet. The whole District is beautifully wooded, and mango-groves are very numerous. The lower levels are but sparingly used for rice cultivation; high rice lands predominate, and on these indigo, opium, wheat, barley, and several kinds of pulse are also grown. The soil is in many places saliferous, and saltpetre is extracted by the Núniyás, a poor and hardy caste. There are no hills in Sáran. The only rivers which are navigable all the year round are the three great streams already mentioned—the GANGES, GANDAK, and GOGRA. Among the smaller *nadís*, many of which dry up altogether in the hot weather, are the Sundí or Dáhá, the Jharáhí, the Gandakí, the Gangrí, the Dhanáí, and the Khatsá, all of which ultimately fall into the Gogra or the Ganges. The drainage of the District is from north-west to south-east, and is carried off by the many small *nadís* into the larger streams. When the rainfall is unusually heavy, these *nadís* are unable to contain all the water, and large tracts of cultivated ground are inundated. The consequences are specially disastrous when the mouths of the *nadís* are stopped by high floods in the great rivers into which they flow. There is very little jungle in Sáran, and large game is not met with, although both tigers and leopards are said to have been at one time very common in the District. Among the game birds found are quail, wild duck, snipe, plover, partridge, ortolans, and green pigeons. Snakes are very numerous.

Population.—Several early estimates were made of the population of Sáran. In 1800, a calculation based on an enumeration of the houses gave 1,104,000 as the number of inhabitants; but this included the present District of Champáran, which was not separated from Sáran until 1837. Estimates based on similar enumerations were made in 1843, 1847, 1854, 1855, and 1860, the earliest giving a population of 1,376,215, and the latest 1,271,729. The first accurate Census was that taken in 1872, which disclosed a total population of 2,063,860 persons, inhabiting 4350 villages and 293,524 houses. The area over which the Census was taken being 2654 square miles, the following averages are obtained:—Number of villages per square mile, 1·64; houses per square mile, 111; persons per village, 474; persons per house, 7; persons per square mile, 778. The density of population is greater than in any other District of Lower Bengal, except the metropolitan Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás and Húglí. In the *sadr* or headquarters Subdivision, the density rises to 859, while in three *thánás* of that Subdivision (Dighwára, Mánjhí, and Mashrak) the average exceeds 900. Even in the two *thánás* where population is least dense, viz. Baragáon and Barauli, the rates per square mile

are 605 and 620 respectively. Classified according to sex, the population is divided into 996,683 males and 1,067,177 females; percentage of males, 48·3. This low proportion is explained by the fact that a large number of the men leave the District for service or as soldiers. Previous to the Mutiny, it is said that as many as 10,000 sepoys were natives of this District. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—boys, 389,786, and girls, 353,524; total, 743,310: over 12—males, 606,897, and females, 713,653; total, 1,320,550. The ethnical division of the people gives the following results:—Europeans number 95, of whom 88 are British; of mixed race (Eurasians) there are 29; and the remainder, 2,063,736, are Asiatics, including 16 Nepálís. The number of Hindus is 1,577,914; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 22,952; Muhammadans, 241,590; aboriginal tribes, 7796; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 213,468. The chief aboriginal tribe in Sáran is that of the Bhars, who number 7647; while of the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous tribes are the Chamárs, or workers in leather (94,844), the Dosádhs (73,046), and the Binds (18,429). Superior Hindu castes are largely represented, the Bráhmans numbering 158,109 and the Rájputs 225,873. The most numerous caste in Sáran is that of the Goálas (or Ahírs), the herdsmen of the country. They bear a bad character for turbulence and dishonesty, and figure largely in the jail returns. Other numerous castes are—the Koeris (141,209), who are the best cultivators in the District, holding most of the opium lands, from which they raise first-rate crops; and the Kurmís (100,790), also an agricultural caste. Of the 22,952 persons described in the Census Report as being of Hindu origin, but not recognising caste, the large majority, 18,612, are Atiths, a sect of Sivaites who are in theory celibates. Vaishnavs number 3777. The Muhammadans are divided into 430,030 Shaikhs, 11,420 Patháns, 3710 Sayyids, and 369 Mughals, while 183,061 are 'unspecified,' making a total of 241,590. Classified on the basis of religion, the population of Sáran consists of—1,822,048 Hindus, or 88·3 per cent. of the total population; 241,590 Muhammadans, or 11·3 per cent.; 207 Christians, and 16 'others.' The population is entirely agricultural, the so-called towns being, with the exception of the three municipalities of CHHAPRA, SEWAN, and REVELGANJ, merely large villages or collections of hamlets in the midst of which are conducted all the operations of rural life. No fewer than 71 of these 'towns' contain between 2000 and 5000 persons; 2 have from 5000 to 6000; 2 from 10,000 to 15,000; and 1 nearly 50,000. Of towns proper the five most populous are—CHHAPRA, pop. (1872) 46,287; REVELGANJ, 13,415; ALIGANJ SEWAN, 11,099; PANAPUR, 5871; and MANJHI, 5747. Of these, the first three are municipalities, with a total income in 1872 of £3383.

Agriculture.—Rice is, perhaps, the most important crop grown in Sáran; though the area under rice is largely exceeded by the collective area under such inferior grains as *makai*, *kodo*, and *maruá*. It consists of two great harvests—the *bhadai* or autumn harvest, and the *aghâni* or winter harvest, the latter being by far the larger of the two. The *bhadai* is generally sown broadcast on high ground in June, and reaped in September. Its chief varieties are, (1) *sathí*, (2) *sarha*, (3) *katki* or *munga*, and (4) *karháni*. *Agháni* rice is sown on low ground. In June, after rain has fallen, a nursery is selected, and ploughed three or four times before the seed is sown. It is afterwards transplanted, and is harvested in December or January. The 33 principal varieties of this rice are as follows:—(1) *Bhoinsloti*, (2) *kanugá*, (3) *khâhá*, (4) *jágar*, (5) *senegra*, (6) *jasariá*, (7) *thanomí*, (8) *sáro*, (9) *será*, (10) *sallá*, (11) *shakhjírá*, (12) *kalunjí*, (13) *sátul*, (14) *selá*, (15) *lánjí*, (16) *batarání*, (17) *kájri*, (18) *láldána*, (19) *umath*, (20) *rathgoli*, (21) *dachni*, (22) *bellaur*, (23) *baharni*, (24) *bánsmati*, (25) *sámjírá*, (26) *jágar*, (27) *khera*, (28) *rás*, (29) *paháriá*, (30) *singhár*, (31) *syámsundar*, (32) *karanga*, and (33) *gajpatta*. Other cereals cultivated are wheat, barley, and Indian corn. Green crops comprise *matar* or peas, *khesari*, gram, *arhar*, *mug*, *urid*, beans, sweet potatoes, mustard-seed, etc. Cotton, hemp, and flax are also grown. *Pán* or betel-leaf is generally cultivated on high land situated near a well or tank, in the vicinity of the homestead. Special crops comprise tobacco, sugar-cane, indigo, and opium; the latter being cultivated only under Government licence. The total area under indigo is estimated at 45,000 acres, yielding an average out-turn of 8000 cwt., valued at £280,000. The total area under poppy is about 50,000 acres, with a yield of 900,000 lbs. Manure is used whenever it can be procured, and irrigation is largely practised for the cold-weather crops. The poorer class of cultivators are, as a rule, deeply in debt. Rents are high, the following being returned as the average rates throughout the District: Transplanted rice, 9s. 6¾d. per acre; broadcast rice, 6s. 9d.; Indian corn, wheat, *maruá*, *arhar*, and cotton, 11s. 3d.; *kodo*, barley, and pulse, 9s. 5½d.; poppy, 15s. 8d.; indigo, 10s. 4½d.; and sugar-cane, 9s. 11d. It is very common to find Bráhmans, Bábhans, Rájputs, and other high castes holding the best lands in a village at rates varying from 50 to 75 per cent. below what a low-caste man pays for inferior land. Rents are now almost invariably paid in money, instead of in kind, as was formerly common. As a general rule, the cultivators claim to hold under a right of occupancy, but such tenures are rarely transferable, except with permission of the landlord. Tenants holding their lands without liability to enhancement do not number more than 5 per cent. of the whole. Wages have increased about 30 per cent of late years. The rates for ordinary day-labourers vary from 2¼d. to 3d. per

day, according as they are employed in the country or the town; women and boys receive from 1½d. to 2½d. per day. Bricklayers and blacksmiths get from 4½d. to 6d. a day; sawyers, 4½d.; and carpenters, from 3¾d. to 6d. a day. Prices of food grains have also risen in like proportion. In 1871-72, which may be taken as an ordinary year, 40 lbs. of common rice could be obtained for the rupee. In 1877-78, when scarcity prevailed owing to an ill-distributed rainfall and excessive exportation to Southern India, only 27 lbs. of rice were to be got for the same money. Ancient records show that in 1790 the price was 150 lbs. for the rupee.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to blight, flood, and drought. The most common kind of blight is called *hindá*, a mildew which attacks wheat and barley. Insects do considerable damage; and also hailstorms in the cold weather. Sáran District, being bounded on two sides by large rivers, which flow on ridges and carry enormous volumes of water, is peculiarly exposed to inundation. The northern side of the District is now, however, completely protected by the Gandak embankment. Towards the south, along the banks of the Ganges and Gogra, protective works are still required, as large tracts are inundated nearly every year. The old records are full of complaints about these inundations, which in many cases rendered a remission of revenue necessary. The most noteworthy floods of late years occurred in 1871 and 1874. Droughts have occurred several times, the worst known having taken place in 1866 and 1874, both of which were caused by the failure of the local rains. During the scarcity of 1874, relief works on an extensive scale were undertaken by Government, and in the first fortnight of June a daily average of 229,885 persons were employed in road-making. Advances of grain were made to the extent of 324,831 *maunds*. Prices were kept down, however, by Government importations, and the highest rate reached for common rice in 1874 was 12s. 1½d. per cwt., as against £1, 1s. 10d. per cwt. in 1866. To remedy this liability to drought, a scheme of irrigation was commenced in 1878, by which the waters of the Gandak will be led through the centre of the District. The total cost is estimated at only £50,000, on which sum a few planters and *zamíndárs* have guaranteed interest at the rate of 4½ per cent. The total area to be irrigated is estimated at 140,000 acres.

Means of Communication, Trade, etc. — The District possesses a total length of 890 miles of made road, but there are no railways or canals. The principal manufactures are indigo, sugar, brass-work, pottery, saltpetre, and cloth. The chief exports from the District are oil-seeds, indigo, saltpetre, sugar, grain of all sorts, except rice; the principal articles of import being rice, salt, and European piece-goods. The great trading mart of the District is Revelganj. In 1876-77, the

total registered river traffic of Sáran District, including both imports and exports, amounted to just two millions sterling. A great portion of this total is merely through traffic, which comes down from Oudh and the North-Western Provinces, and changes boat at Revelganj and Semuria, on its way to Patna or Calcutta. Revelganj is perhaps the largest mart for oilseeds (chiefly linseed) in all India. In 1876-77, the total registered import of oilseeds into the District was valued at £265,000; the total export was £370,000, thus leaving a balance of more than £100,000 for the local produce. As regards food grains, however, the figures show decisively that Sáran is unable to supply its own dense population. In 1876-77, the imports of food grains of all kinds were valued at £326,000, as compared with exports valued at only £118,000. The other principal items of export were indigo (£179,000), and saltpetre and other saline substances (£67,000). Salt was imported to the value of £143,000.

Administration.—In 1794, the net revenue of the District (which then included Champáran) amounted to £195,254, with a civil expenditure of £27,496; in 1850-51, the revenue (including Champáran) was £230,567, with an expenditure of £24,131; in 1870-71 (after the separation of Champáran), the net revenue of Sáran was £185,072, with a civil expenditure of £43,826. The land tax, here as elsewhere, forms by far the greatest proportion of the District revenue, and amounted in 1870-71 to £122,344, paid by 3400 separate estates. For police purposes the District is divided into 10 circles (*thánás*). The regular police force in 1872 consisted of 408 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £6990, or an average of 1 policeman to every 6·5 square miles of the District area and to every 5058 of the population. The municipal force in the towns consisted of 173 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost to municipal funds of £1322. The village watch or rural police numbered 6067 men, maintained, either by the *zamíndárs* or by service lands held rent free, at an estimated total cost of £5522 a year. Each village watchman has charge of 41 houses on an average, and receives an average pay in money or lands of 12 *ánnás* a month, or 18s. a year. Including the regular police, municipal police, and the village watch, the total machinery for protecting person and property in Sáran District consisted, at the end of 1872, of 6648 men of all ranks; equal to an average of 1 man to every 0·39 of a square mile of the District area, or to every 310 of the population. The estimated cost from all sources of maintaining this force, including value of rent-free lands, amounted in 1872 to £13,834; equal to a charge of £5, 4s. 3d. per square mile of the area, or about 1½d. per head of the population. There are 2 jails in the District, at Chhaprá and Sewán towns, with a daily average prison population in 1870 of 311, the total admissions being 1422.

Average cost of maintenance per prisoner, £6, 6s. 8d.; average earnings per prisoner, £1, 13s. 11d. Serious crime is not very prevalent the principal criminal classes being the Dosádhs, Ahírs, and Maghya Doms. Education has rapidly progressed since the introduction of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms in 1872. In 1870-71, there were only 9 Government or aided schools in the District, attended by 585 pupils. At the close of the year 1873-74, the inspected schools numbered 326, with 7066 pupils; equal to an average of 1 school for every 8 square miles of the District area, and 3·4 pupils to every thousand of the population. For administrative and fiscal purposes, Sáran is divided into 2 Subdivisions and 17 *pargánas.*

Medical Aspects.—The seasons in Sáran are very similar to those of Tirhut, but perhaps a little hotter. The hot weather begins about the end of March; and in a fortnight afterwards, hot westerly winds begin to blow during the day. At night, the wind comes generally from the east, and the temperature is comparatively cool, being lowered by occasional thunderstorms. The rains set in about the middle of June, and continue, with intermissions, till about the end of September or the middle of October. September is by far the most trying month of the year; the air is damp and steamy, while the sun's rays are extremely strong. The cold weather begins about the middle of October, and continues till the beginning of March. Average annual rainfall, 45·27 inches. The prevailing diseases are cholera, small-pox, fever, and dysentery. The civil surgeon states that it is doubtful if cholera is ever really absent from the District; and it commits great ravages towards the end of the hot and beginning of the rainy season. Small-pox comes next in intensity, but the people are beginning to avail themselves of vaccination. Both diseases are said to be now on the decrease, owing to the improved habits of the people and the high state of cultivation. The people who live in the neighbourhood of low rice lands suffer a good deal from fever. Dysentery, the result of bad water and insufficient clothing, is sometimes very severe. Six Government charitable dispensaries afford medical relief at Chhaprá, Sewán, Hatwá, Bhori, Gopálganj, and Revelganj. Cattle-disease exists in the form of *guti* or rinderpest, and *kurhá* or foot-and-mouth disease.

Sáranda.—Hill range in the extreme south-west corner of Singbhúm District, bordering on Gangpur State, Bengal. Consists of a grand mass of mountains, rising to the height of 3500 feet, known as 'Sáranda of the seven hundred hills.' The population inhabiting this region is scattered over a few poor hamlets nestling in deep valleys, and belongs for the most part to one of the least reclaimed tribes of Kols.

Sárandá.—One of the *pírs* or groups of villages of the Kolhán, in

Singbhúm District, Bengal. According to the Survey of 1868, the *pír* contains 43 villages. Lat. 22° 1′ 15″ to 22° 30′ N.; long. 85° 2′ to 85° 28′ E.

Sárangarh.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, formerly one of the *Athára Garhját* or 'Eighteen Forts;' lying between 21° 21′ and 21° 45′ 0″ N. lat., and between 82° 59′ and 83° 31′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Chandrapur chiefship and Ráigarh State, on the east by Sambalpur District, on the south by the Phuljhar chiefship, and on the west by Bilàspur District. Pop. (1872), 37,091 (of whom 25,438 were Hindus), residing in 364 villages and 7632 houses. Area, 540 square miles, of which 320 were cultivated in 1877, while of the portion lying waste 80 square miles were returned as cultivable. Density of population, 68·68 persons per square mile. The country is generally level, but in the south and east rise two considerable ranges of hills. The Mahánadi flows to the north of the State; the only other river worth mention is the Láth. Though no large forests remain, patches of *sáj*, *dháurá*, *tendú*, etc. are met with here and there. The wild buffaloes, formerly numerous, have abandoned the State; but tigers, bears, and leopards still range the hills and jungle. The soil is for the most part light and friable, with a strong admixture of sand. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, cotton, and a little wheat are also produced. The only manufactures are *tasar*-silk cloth and coarse cotton cloth; and though iron-ore abounds, no mines are worked. The main road between Sambalpur and Ráipur runs along part of the southern boundary, and the Mahánadi supplies means of communication by water for 50 miles. The Chhatísgarh dialect is the spoken language of the State, and the Hindí character is used for writing. The chief is a Gond, and traces his origin through 54 generations up to Jagdeva Sá, a son of Narendra Sá, Rájá of Lánjí in Bhandára about 91 A.D. In return for military assistance, Narsinh Deva, Rájá of Ratanpur, presented Jagdeva Sá with a *khilat* or personal mark of distinction, and conferred on him the title of *díwán*, together with 84 villages in the Sárangarh tract. Forty-two generations later, when Kalyán Sá was *díwán*, Raghojí Bhonslá of Nágpur was stopped on his way to Cuttack by the Phuljhar people, who held the Singhora Pass against him. Raghojí applied to Banojí, Rájá of Ratanpur, who directed Kalyán Sá to clear the pass. For this service, Kalyán Sá received the title of Rájá, with the right to carry a standard. The title was confirmed by Rájá Chhatra Sá of Sambalpur, when Sárangarh became a dependency of his kingdom; and by their military assistance from time to time to the Sambalpur princes, succeeding Rájás of Sárangarh gained further grants of villages and *parganás*, and gradually made Sárangarh a State of some importance. The only

remarkable building in the State is the temple of Samleswar Deva, erected in 1748 by Aditya Sá Díwán. Sangrám Sinh, the late Rájá, established a good school at his chief town, and there are also indigenous schools in other parts. In 1872, 303 boys under twelve, and 564 males above that age, were returned as able to read and write, or as being under instruction. During the minority of the present Rájá, Bhawáni Pratáb Sinh, his mother, has administered the State. The tribute is £135; and the estimated gross revenue, £800. The climate is unhealthy, and fever prevails widely from September to November.

Saraswatí (*Sarsutí*).—Sacred river of the Punjab, famous in the early Bráhmanical annals. Rises in lat. 30° 23′ N., long. 77° 19′ E., just beyond the British border, in the low hills of Sírmúr State; emerges upon the plain at Zadh Budri in Ambála, a place esteemed sacred by all Hindus; flows in a general south-westerly direction, and loses itself more than once in the sands, but reappears again with little diminished volume; passes by the holy town of Thanesar and the numerous shrines of the Kurukshetra, a tract celebrated as a centre of pilgrimages; enters Karnál District and Patiála State, and finally joins the Ghaggar in Sírsa District (lat. 29° 51′ N., long. 76° 5′ E.).

In ancient times, the united stream below the point of junction appears to have borne the name of Sarsutí, and, undiminished by irrigation near the hills, to have flowed across the Rájputána plains, debouching into the Indus below its confluence with the Punjab rivers. The deserted bed can still be traced as far as Mirgarh in Baháwalpur; but the water now penetrates no farther than Bhatner in Rájputána, where its trickling streams finally lose themselves in the sandy plain. The numerous dams across the hill torrents at the foot of the mountains probably account for the drying up of the ancient channel. The name of Saraswatí, 'the river of pools,' sufficiently describes the character of the stream in its upper portion, where it dries up partially in the early months of the year, becoming a mere succession of separate ponds. To each of these is attached a legend and a shrine, visited by thousands of pilgrims every year. According to Hindu legend, the disappearance of the Saraswatí in the sands is accounted for as follows:—Saraswatí was the daughter of Mahádeo; but her father one day, in a drunken fit, approaching her with the intention of violating her modesty, the Hindu Arethusa fled, and dived underground whenever she saw her pursuer gaining upon her; and the river, which sprang up in her track, still disappears underground at the self-same spots. By devout Hindus the Saraswatí is supposed to flow in a subterranean course till it joins the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná) at ALLAHABAD, where the moisture on the walls of the crypt in the temple of the Undying Banian tree forms a conclusive proof of its existence in the eyes of the faithful. The real direction of the Saraswatí basin, however, lies towards the Indus below

Mithánkot. Some of the earliest Aryan settlements in India were on the banks of the Saraswatí, and the surrounding country has from almost Vedic times been held in high veneration. The Hindus identify the river with Saraswatí, the Sanskrit Goddess of Speech. See Muir's *Orig. Sanskrit Texts*, vol. i., many passages (ed. 1868); General Cunningham's *Anc. Geog. Ind.* pp. 331–33 (ed. 1871); Prof. Dowson's *Dict. Hindu Mythol.* p. 284 (ed. 1879); and article INDIA, *ante*, Vol. IV.

Saraswatí.—River of Húglí District, Bengal. Formerly the main stream of the Ganges, and navigable by large vessels as far as SATGAON, the royal port of Bengal in the 16th century. The Saraswatí has now silted up, and become a foul shallow creek, branching south-west from the Húglí near Tribení, lat. 22° 59′ N., long. 88° 26′ 45″ E. An offshoot of the ancient stream debouches into the Dámodar, near Amptá, the main channel falling into the Húglí a short distance below the Calcutta Botanical Gardens. The remains of large ships are frequently discovered many feet deep in the ground, which now covers the bed of the Saraswatí.

Saraswatí.—River of Western India, rising in Mount Abu, Rájputána. Flowing through the Pálanpur and Rádhanpur States of the Mahi Kántha Agency, and through the Patan Subdivision of Baroda State, the Saraswatí, after a south-westerly course of over 100 miles, enters the Rann of Cutch to the east of the State of that name. In the vicinity of Sidhpur and Patan towns, by which the river passes, the Saraswatí is said to have a subterraneous course of several miles, reappearing before it enters the Rádhanpur territory. The river is fordable almost everywhere; its banks and bed are generally sandy; it is nowhere navigable. The only importance of the Saraswatí consists in its sanctity. It is visited by Hindus, especially those who have lost their mothers; Sidhpur on this river being considered the appropriate place to perform rites in honour of a deceased mother, as Gayá in Behar is assigned for ceremonies in honour of a deceased father.

Sárathá.—Port on the river of the same name in Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. 21° 34′ 45″ N., long. 87° 8′ 16″ E. Frequented by native rice sloops, the river being navigable as far as Nalitagarh, 8 miles from the sea. The sister port of Sárathá is CHHANUYA.

Sarath Deogarh.—Sub-District and town in the Santál Parganás, Bengal.—*See* DEOGARH.

Saráyan.—River of Oudh. Rising in Kheri District in lat. 27° 46′ N., and long. 80° 32′ E., after a course of 49 miles in a south-easterly direction it enters Sítápur District, where it receives the Jamwári on its left bank, in lat. 27° 32′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E. Thence it flows for about 3 miles in a north-westerly course, and, resuming its previous direction, joins the GUMTI in lat. 27° 9′ N., and long. 80° 55′ E. Total length, about 95 miles. It causes destructive floods in some

years, as it drains a considerable area of country with its numerous affluents.

Sárda.—River of North-Western India and Oudh, which takes its rise in the loftier ranges of the Himálayas, which separate Kumáun from Thibet, at an altitude of 18,000 feet. It debouches from the hills at Barmdeo, 148 miles from its source, in lat. 29° 6′ N., and long. 80° 13′ E., at an altitude of 847 feet above sea level. The river is here 450 feet broad, with a minimum discharge of 5600 cubic feet per second. Shortly after leaving Barmdeo, it divides into several channels, which reunite 9 miles farther down at Banbása, but again separate, and finally join at Mandiá Ghát, 168 miles from its source, where the last rapids occur, and the stream becomes an ordinary river of the plains. Eleven miles lower down, it touches British territory in Khairigarh *parganá*, Oudh; and 11 miles farther on, or 190 miles from its source, it joins the CHAUKA near Mothia Ghát. From this point the united stream takes the name of the Chauka, till it falls into the GOGRA on its right bank, in lat. 27° 9′ N., and long. 81° 30″ E.

Sardhána. — *Tahsíl* of Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on either side of the Hindan river, and watered by the Ganges and Eastern Jumna Canals. Area, 251 square miles, of which 184 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 147,398; land revenue, £30,043; total Government revenue, £33,051; rental paid by the cultivators, £55,455.

Sardhána. — Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces, and former capital of the famous Begam Samru. Lat. 29° 9′ 6″ N., long. 77° 39′ 26″ E.; pop. (1872), 12,466, consisting of 6471 Hindus, 5641 Muhammadans, and 354 Christians. Stands on a low site, near the Ganges Canal, 12 miles north-west of Meerut city. The town has a poor and decayed appearance, being in a decadent condition since the death of the famous Begam Samru. Northward lies Lashkarganj, founded by the Begam as a camp, and the old fort; next succeeds a wide parade-ground; and southward stands the town itself. Local tradition assigns the foundation of Sardhána to one Rájá Sarkat at a period anterior to the Muhammadan conquest. Its modern history is interesting from its connection with the well-known adventurers Walter Reinhard and George Thomas. The following sketch is condensed from an account given in the official Gazetteer of Meerut. Walter Reinhard, a soldier of fortune, better known by the name of Samru or Sombre, was a butcher by profession, and a native of Luxemburg. He came to India as a soldier in the French army, and deserting that service, took employment with the British, where he attained to the rank of sergeant. Deserting again, he rejoined the French service at Chandernagore, and on the surrender of that settlement accompanied M. Law in his wanderings throughout India from 1757 to 1760. In the latter year, Law's party joined the army of Sháh Alam in Bengal,

and remained with the emperor until his defeat in 1760 at Gaya by Colonel Carnac, in his attempt to reconquer Bengal from the Nawab. Samru next entered the service of Mír Kásim, by whom he was employed to murder the English prisoners at Patna (PATNA DISTRICT, *q. v.*) in October 1763. He succeeded in escaping into Oudh, and afterwards entered the service of several native chiefs, until in 1777 he entered the service of Mírza Najf-Khán, the general and minister of Sháh Alam II., and received the *parganá* of Sardhána in fief, as an assignment for the support of his battalions. He died here in the following year, and was succeeded by his widow, the well-known Begam Samru, who continued to keep the military force. This remarkable woman, the illegitimate daughter of a Musalmán of Arab descent, and the mistress of Reinhard before becoming his wife, assumed the entire management of the estate, and the personal command of the troops, which numbered 5 battalions of sepoys, about 300 European officers and gunners, with 50 pieces of cannon, and a body of irregular horse. In 1781 the Begam was baptized into the Roman Catholic Church, under the name of Johanna. Her troops rendered excellent service to the emperor in the battle of Gokalgarh in 1788, where a charge of Sardhána troops, personally led by the Begam and the celebrated adventurer George Thomas, saved the fortunes of the day at a critical moment. In 1792, the Begam married Levassoult, a Frenchman in command of her artillery. In 1795, her European officers became disaffected, and an illegitimate son of Reinhard, known as Zafaryáb Khán, put himself at their head. The Begam and her husband were forced to fly. In the flight the Begam's palanquin was overtaken by the rebels, and she stabbed herself to save herself from falling into their hands; and thereupon Levassoult shot himself, in pursuance of a vow that if one of them was killed the other would commit suicide. The Begam's wound, however, was but a slight one, and she was brought back to Sardhána. Another account of this incident is that the Begam had become tired of her husband, and that it was all a plot on her own part to get rid of him. However, all her power passed temporarily into the hands of Zafaryáb Khán, and she was treated with great personal indignity, till she was restored to power some months later by her old general George Thomas, and remained in undisturbed possession of her estates till her death in 1836.

After the battle of Delhi, and the British conquest of the Upper Doáb, the Begam submitted to the new rulers, and ever after remained distinguished for her loyalty. Her possessions were numerous, and included several considerable towns, such as Sardhána, Baraut, Barnáwa, and Dankaur, besides lying in the immediate neighbourhood of great marts like Meerut, Delhi, Khúrja, and Bágpat. Her income from her estates in Meerut District alone amounted to £56,721 per annum. She kept

up a considerable army, and had places of residence at Khirwa, Jalálpur, Meerut, and Delhi, besides her palace at Sardhána. She endowed with large sums the Catholic churches of Madras, Calcutta, Agra, and Bombay, the Sardhána Cathedral, the Sardhána poorhouse, St. John's Roman Catholic College, and the Meerut Catholic Chapel. She also made over a *lákh* of Sonat rupees to the Bishop of Calcutta for charitable purposes, and subscribed liberally to Hindu and Musalmán institutions. Zafaryáb Khán, the son of Samru, died in 1802, and left one daughter, whom the Begam married to Mr. Dyce, an officer in her service. David Ochterlony Dyce Sombre, the issue of this marriage, died in Paris, July 1851, and the Sardhána estates passed to his widow, the Hon. Mary Anne Forester, daughter of Viscount St. Vincent. The Begam's residence, on the east side of the town, is a fine modern house, with a grand flight of steps at the entrance and extensive grounds. It is well furnished, and contains some good pictures. The Roman Catholic Cathedral, built in 1822, stands south of the town, and is an imposing building, surrounded by an ornamental wall. St. John's College, for training priests, occupies a low masonry house, once the Begam's private residence. Two excellent papers on the Sardhána estate, and a biography of George Thomas, in the *Calcutta Review* for January and April 1880, by Mr. H. G. Keane, B.C.S., differ in some unimportant degrees from the history of the estate as given above. Four Jain temples. Schools. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office. Old fort at Lashkarganj in ruins. Insufficient drainage causes malarious fevers, but local funds are being applied to remedy this evil. Essentially an agricultural town, with little trade and no manufactures.

Sarení.—*Parganá* of Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Khiron, on the east by Dálmau, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Daundia Khera. Area, 114 square miles, of which 61 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 60,825, namely, 59,471 Hindus and 1354 Muhammadans. Of the 169 villages comprising the *parganá*, 157 are held under *tálukdári* tenure, Bais Kshattriyas being the chief proprietary body. Government land revenue, £19,100, equal to an average of 5s. 2⅞d. per acre.

Sargúja.—The largest of the Native States of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; lies between 22° 37′ 30″ and 24° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 82° 32′ 5″ and 84° 7′ E. long. Area, 6103 square miles; population in 1872, 182,831. Bounded on the north by Mírzápur, a District of the North-Western Provinces, and the State of Rewah; on the east by Lohárdagá District; on the south by Jashpur, Udáipur, and the District of Biláspur in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Koreá.

Physical Aspects.—Sargúja may be described in general terms as a secluded basin, walled in on the north-east and south by massive hill-barriers, and protected from approach on the west by the forest-

clad tract of Koreá. The eastern portion of the State consists of an undulating tableland about 2500 feet above the sea, continuous with, but slightly higher than, the adjoining plateau of Chutiá Nágpur proper. From this again isolated hill ranges, and *páts* or plateaux, capped with a horizontal stratum of trap rock, rise to an elevation of 3500 and 4000 feet, forming on the north the boundary of Palámau, and blending in the south with the northern Jashpur Hills. The two most prominent physical features of Sargúja are the Máinpát, a magnificent tableland 18 miles long, from 6 to 8 broad, and 3781 feet above sea level; and the Jamírápát, a long winding ridge about 2 miles wide. The Máinpát is well wooded and watered throughout, and supplies extensive grazing fields during the summer months; the pasturage dues of this tract alone are estimated at £250 per annum. The chief peaks in the State are Mailán, 4024 feet; Jám, 3827; and Partagharsa, 3804. The principal rivers are the Kanhar, Rehr, and Máhán, which flow northwards into the Són; and the Sankh, a tributary of the Bráhmaní. None of these streams is navigable. Coal is found in Central Sargúja, in the BISRAMPUR field. There is a group of hot springs at Tatápání, in the north of the State; their maximum temperature is 184° F. *Sál* timber abounds everywhere.

History.—The early history of Sargúja is extremely obscure. Authentic records date from 1758, when a Marhattá army in progress to the Ganges overran the State, and compelled its chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Berar Government. In consequence of the chief having aided a rebellion in Palámau against the British at the end of the last century, an expedition entered Sargúja under the command of Colonel Jones. Order was restored, and a treaty was concluded between the British Government and the Mahárájá of Chutiá Nágpur, which, however, proved inoperative. As soon as the British force retired, fresh disputes broke out between the ruling chief and his relations; and in 1813, Major Roughsedge, the Political Agent, went to Sargúja and endeavoured to settle the affairs of the State. The young Rájá being imbecile, a *díwán* was appointed to carry on the government; but this officer was soon afterwards killed, and an attempt to seize the Rájá and his two Ránís was only frustrated by the gallantry of a small guard of British Sepoys who had been left in Sargúja for their protection. Until 1818, the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under a provisional agreement concluded with Madhoji Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib), and order was soon restored. In 1826, the chief received the title of Mahárájá.

Population.—The population of 182,831 persons (1872), inhabiting 1295 villages and 36,463 houses, consisted of 91,291 males and 91,540 females; proportion of males in total population, 49·9 per cent.

The Dravidian aborigines (of whom the Gonds and Uráons form by far the most numerous section of the population) numbered 73,256, or 40·1 per cent.; the Kolarian tribes, 39,416, or 21·5 per cent.; Hindus, 68,789, or 37·6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 1370, or 0·8 per cent. of the total population. Average density of population, 30 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·21; persons per village, 141; houses per square mile, 6; persons per house, 5. The residence of the Mahárájá is at Bisrámpur; but the manager lives at Pratáppur farther north, which village is virtually the capital of the State. It contains a court-house, jail, and school. Only two villages in Sargúja have a population of from 1000 to 2000 souls. The chief objects of interest are RAMGARH HILL, the remains of several temples, the deserted fortress of Júbá, and numerous images. (For a full account of these antiquities and of the aboriginal tribes of Sargúja, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 231-240).

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crops are cereals, oil-seeds, and cotton. On an average, the rent varies from 1s. 1½d. to 1s. 6d. per acre. Cesses, however, are levied, which equal, and sometimes exceed, the actual rent; and every cultivator is bound to work for his landlord fifteen days in the year, exclusive of the time spent in going to the work. This system of forced labour is at present the chief drawback to cultivation in Sargúja. The passes into the State are impracticable for wheeled traffic. The manufactures are pottery, coarse cloth, and rough ironwork. Weekly markets are held at Pratáppur, Bisrámpur, and Jhilmilí. Exports—food grains, oil-seeds, *ghí*, lac, resin, and cocoons of *tasar* silk; imports—brass and pewter vessels, ornaments, piece-goods, and salt.

Administration.—The State yields its Rájá an annual income of about £3000, and pays a tribute to Government of £189, 3s. 4d. In 1877-78, when Sargúja was under the supervision of the Commissioner of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, the actual revenue was ascertained to be £3199, and the expenditure £2565. Police duties are performed by the principal feudal sub-proprietors, styled *nákadárs*, each being responsible for the public peace within his borders. Sargúja is divided into 11 police circles, three of which are kept up by the State.

Sargúr.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore.—*See* SARAGUR.

Sarh Sálimpur.—Easternmost *tahsíl* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a fertile plain, lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the East Indian Railway. Area, 208 square miles, of which 129 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 99,303; land revenue, £23,598; total Government revenue, £25,958; rental paid by cultivators, £37,065.

Sarila.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency and the Central India Agency. It lies within *parganá* Jalálpur of Hamírpur District, and is

surrounded on all sides by British territory. Area, 35 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 6000; estimated revenue, £3000. On the division of his estates by Pahar Sinh, son of Jagatráj, Rájá of Jaitpur, Mán Sinh, his second son, obtained Sarila. His successor, Tej Sinh, was expelled by Alí Bahádur, but eventually recovered a portion of his territories through the assistance of Himmat Bahádur. At the time of the British occupation of Bundelkhand, he was in possession of the fort and village of Sarila. In consideration of his voluntary submission and influence in the District, he was granted 11 villages by *sanad* in 1807. The present (1876) chief is Rájá Khalak Sinh, during whose minority the State is managed by his mother. The military force of the State consists of 4 guns, 40 cavalry, and 200 infantry and police.

Sarishpur (or *Siddheswar*).—Hill range in the south of Assam, forming the boundary between Cáchár District on the east and Sylhet on the west. The height varies from 600 to 2000 feet above sea level.

Sarjápur.—Municipal village in Bangalore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 52′ N., long. 77° 49′ 5″ E.; pop. (1871), 3051; municipal revenue (1874-75), £18; rate of taxation, 1½d. per head. Considerable manufacture of cotton cloth, carpets, and tape. Muslins of fine quality are no longer made. Weekly fair on Fridays.

Sarju.—River in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GOGRA.

Sarmastipur.—Trading village in Darbhangah District, Bengal.—*See* SOMASTIPUR.

Sárnáth (probably a corruption of Sárangganáth, 'Lord of Deer,' referring to a legend of Buddha).—Buddhist ruins in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, distant 3½ miles north of BENARES city; Sakya Muni first preached his doctrines here, and some of the ruins probably date from his time (543 B.C.). The remains form a mound of brick and stone *débris* about half a mile long by a quarter of a mile broad, out of which still emerge the remains of two great *stupas*, and a third is in the vicinity. The most remarkable, specially known as the Dhamek, is a solid dome 93 feet in diameter, and 110 feet above the plain. The plinth, 43 feet high, is of solid stone cramped with iron, and richly sculptured on the exterior. The upper part consists of dilapidated brickwork. The second *stupa* was excavated for bricks in 1794. The third, now called Chaukandi, is 800 yards south of Dhamek, and consists of a lofty ruined mound of brickwork, 74 feet in height, crowned by an octagonal building, commemorating the Emperor Humayún's visit in 1531. The remains of many other buildings have been excavated in the vicinity. The Dhamek tower probably is, if not the same, on the site of that erected by Asoka to mark the spot where Buddha first preached his doctrine. The name is a corrupt form of Dharma, 'The Law.' Both Dhamek and Chaukandi *stupas* appear to be mentioned by Hiouen Thsang. See also General Cunningham's *Anc. Geog. Ind.* pp. 437–438 (ed. 1871).

Saromannagar.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sháhábád; on the east by Báwan; on the south-east and south by the Sukheta river, which separates it from Barwán; and on the west by the Gara river, separating it from Páli *parganá*. Area, 35 square miles, of which 21 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 15,624, namely, 15,331 Hindus and 293 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £2229, equal to an average of 3s. 3⅝d. per acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 11¾d. per acre of total area. Of the 42 villages comprising the *parganá*, 20 are held by Sombansís, and 15 by Chamár Gaurs. Thirty villages are held in imperfect *pattidári* and 12 in *zamíndári* tenure. The country was originally occupied by Thatheras, who were driven out of many of their villages by Gaur Rájputs in the middle of the 12th century; and their total expulsion by the Sombansís occurred shortly afterwards. The *parganá* was first constituted in 1803 by Rájá Bhawání Parshád of Muhamdi, out of villages previously belonging to the neighbouring *parganás* of Páli and Sárá.

Saromannagar.—Town in Hardoi District, and headquarters of Saromannagar *parganá;* situated 6 miles south of Sháhábád, and 15 miles north-west of Hardoi town. Pop. (1869), 1452, namely, 1303 Hindus and 149 Muhammadans. Village school. Bi-weekly market.

Sársa.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay; situated 28 miles east by south of Kaira town, in lat. 22° 33′ N., and long. 73° 7′ E. Pop. (1872), 5218.

Sarsaganj.—Trading village in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 3′ N., long. 78° 43′ 50″ E.; pop. in 1872 (including Sarsa), 5496. Lies on the Etáwah road, 6 miles north of Bhadán station, East Indian Railway, and 27 miles south-west of Máinpuri town. The village of Sarsa (pop. 3922) is a mere agricultural hamlet, containing a large fortified brick house, belonging to a family of Kirár Thákurs; but the real importance of the place centres in the neighbouring *bázár* of Sarsaganj, the principal trading market of the District, and the only one which carries on business with surrounding towns. Fine market-place, known as Raikes-ganj; bi-weekly fair; large trade in cotton. Wealthy merchants, chiefly Jains; several Jain temples; very handsome little mosque of peculiar architecture. Large cattle market. Police station, post office, village school. House tax in 1873-74 yielded a revenue of £86.

Sarsáwa.—Ancient town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 3433. Distant from Saháranpur town 10 miles west, upon the Ambála (Umballa) road. Small trade to and from the Punjab. Chiefly remarkable for its historical associations, being identified by General Cunningham with Sharwa or Sharasháraha, the city of Rájá Chand, sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1019 A.D. The Rájá fled to the hills after the fall of his fort; but Mahmúd followed up the

fugitives, defeated them in the midst of a forest, and captured an enormous booty in gold, silver, precious stones, and slaves. Police station, post office, village school.

Sarsutí. — River in the North-Western Provinces, Punjab.—*See* SARASWATI.

Sáru. — The loftiest hill in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated in Lohárdagá District, west of Ránchí town; 3615 feet in height. Lat. 23° 30′ N., long. 84° 30′ 45″ E.

Sarvepalli.—Town in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 17′ 30″ N., long. 80° 0′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 5101, inhabiting 912 houses. Sarvepalli contains the ruins of an old Rohillá fort and a fine stone tank.

Sarwán.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 36′ N., and long. 80° 56′ E., 6 miles north-east of Purwá, and 26 miles east of Unao town. Pop. (1869), 2183, viz. 2067 Hindus and 116 Musalmáns. A very ancient village, with a noted Sivaite temple. Concerning this temple, Mr. C. A. Elliott narrates the following tradition in his *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 5, 6:—'To worship at this temple, and to shoot and hunt in the wild forest country around, came Rájá Dasaratha from Ajodhya, the father of Rámchandra, the 57th Rájá of Ajodhya. He was encamped at Sarwára on the edge of a tank. By night came Sarwán, a holy Rishi from Chaunsa (near Ajodhya), by caste a Bania. He was going on pilgrimage, and was carrying his blind father and mother in a pair of baskets, slung over his shoulders. Reaching the tank, he put his burden down and stopped to drink. Rájá Dâsaratha heard a rustling noise, and thinking it was some wild beast, took up his bow and shot an arrow, which struck Sarwán, and he died. Then his blind parents in their misery lifted up their voices and cursed the man who had done the thing. They prayed that as he had slain the son who was the light of their hearts, so he might have trouble and sorrow from his own children, and might die of grief even as they were dying. Having so said, they gave up the ghost; and from that day to this no Kshattriya has lived in the town which is founded on the spot, and is called Sarwán. Many have tried it, but evil has overtaken them in one way or another. The tank remains to this day, and by it lies under a tree the body of Sarwán, a figure of stone; and as he died with his thirst unquenched, so if water is poured into the navel of the figure, the hole can never be filled up, but is inexhaustible in its demand.'

Saryá.—Indigo factory in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated 18 miles south-west of Muzaffarpur town, on the banks of the Bayá river, which is here crossed by the Chhaprá road on a fine three-arched bridge. A short distance from Saryá is a monolith called Bhím Sinh's *láthí* or club, supporting a lion carved in stone. It consists of a plain cylinder about 24 feet high, on the top of which is a pedestal with the lion. The cylinder is in one piece, the height of the whole being about 30 feet.

Its depth below ground is unknown, but it must be very great, as some persons once dug down several feet, and failed to reach the foundation. The stone is covered with names, many of them English, some of which date from 1793. It stands in the courtyard of a Bráhman's house, but no religious meetings take place here. Close at hand is a well or deep excavation; and the Bráhman who owns the land on which the monolith stands affirms that a large amount of treasure is believed to lie concealed beneath, and that this excavation was made to try and recover it.

Sásni (*Sásani*).—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 42′ 12″ N., long. 78° 8′ 5″ E.; pop. (1802), 4208. Distant from Alígarh town 14 miles south on the Agra road, from Háthras 7 miles north. Steadily declining in importance. Remains of ancient fort, which held out under its rebel chief against Lord Lake in 1803, when it was captured not without considerable loss. Monuments in memory of the officers killed in the attack. Indigo factories, built from the materials of the fort. Police station, post office, encamping ground for troops.

Sásserám.—Subdivision of Sháhábád District, Bengal, lying between 24° 31′ and 25° 22′ 30″ N. lat., and between 83° 33′ and 84° 30′ E. long. Area, 1757 square miles; villages, 1668; houses, 65,981. Pop. (1872), 443,703, of whom 404,933, or 91·3 per cent., were Hindus; 38,567, or 8·7 per cent., Muhammadans; 134 Christians; and 69 of other religions. Proportion of males in total population, 49·4 per cent.; persons per square mile, 253; villages per square mile, 0·95; persons per village, 266; houses per square mile, 38; persons per house, 6·7. This Subdivision consists of the 3 police circles of Dhangáon, Nokhá, and Sásserám. In 1870-71, it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 176, and a village watch of 2115 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £6671.

Sásserám.—Headquarters town of Sásserám Subdivision, Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 60 miles south of Arrah, in lat. 24° 56′ 59″ N., and long. 84° 3′ 7″ E. Pop. (1872), 21,023. Municipal revenue, £942, 6s.; rate of taxation, 10¾d. per head of population. The name Sásserám or Sahsrám signifies one thousand toys, because a certain Asur or infidel who lived here had a thousand arms, each holding a separate plaything. The town, now fast declining in importance, is noted as containing the tomb of the Afghán Sher Sháh, who conquered Humáyun, and subsequently became Emperor of Delhi. His mausoleum is at the west end of the town, within a large tank, the excavated earth of which has been thrown into unshapely banks some distance off. The tomb itself consists of an octagonal hall surrounded by an arcade, which forms a gallery; the roof is supported by four gothic arches; the ornaments are in the very worst taste. (For full details respecting this monument, see *Statistical Account*

of Bengal, vol. xii. pp. 205-208.) In 1872-73, the imports of Sásserám were returned at £19,855, the exports at £6660.

Sásu.—River in the south of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which rises in a marsh near the village of Bájaltali, and flowing south-west in a very circuitous course, empties itself into the Burí Dihing near its junction with the Brahmaputra. During the rainy season, the Sásu is navigable by canoes for about 200 miles.

Sáswad (*Sasar*). — Chief town of the Purandhar Subdivision of Poona (Púna) District, Bombay; situated on the left bank of the river Kárha 16 miles south-east of Poona city, in lat. 18° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 74° 4′ 20″ E. Pop. (1872), 6414. Sáswad is a municipal town, with an annual income of £280. Post office and dispensary. Beyond the town, and across the river Kárha, there is an old palace of the Peshwá, now used for the Collector's office. Near the junction of the Kárha and one of its minor tributaries, is a walled building, the palace of the great Bráhman family Purandhare of Purandhar, whose fortunes for upwards of a century were so closely connected with those of the Peshwás. This latter palace was formerly strongly fortified, and in 1818 was garrisoned and held out for ten days against a detachment of British troops.

Sata.—Channel of the Indus in Sind. The most important eastern branch of the river, that to the west being known as the BAGHAR. The Sata sends off, on the left or eastern side, two branches, the Mal and the Matni, both of which are now only shallow streams. Before the great earthquake that occurred in Cutch (Kachchh) in 1819, vessels from seaward entered the Richal mouth, the only accessible entrance, and passed into the Hajámro through what was then the Khedewári creek, and thence into the Mal to Sháhbandar, an important naval station under the Kalhora princes. This passage was closed by the earthquake, and a new mouth opened, viz. the Kukaiwári, which in 1867 was found to be completely choked by sand. The Khedewári was described by Lieutenant Carless in 1837 as having a depth of from 16 to 18 feet, but since 1845 the Hajámro had taken its place as the main channel.

Satanones. — One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £95; of which £10 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Satanwári.—Fort in Bhopál State, Central India; situated in lat. 23° 36′ N., and long. 77° 10′ E., 30 miles north-west of Bhopál town, close to the Gwalior frontier. Satanwári appears, says Thornton, to have been granted with other possessions in 1818 by the British Government to the Nawáb of Bhopál, 'in order to mark its approbation of his conduct, and to enable him to maintain the stipulated contingent.'

Sátára.—A British District in the Deccan Division of the Bombay

Presidency, lying between 16° 51' and 18° 10 30" N. lat., and between 73° 37' and 74° 58' E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 5378 square miles; population in 1872, 1,116,050. It is bounded on the north by the States of Bhor and Phaltan, and the Níra river separating it from Poona; on the east by Sholápur District and the estates of the Panth Pratinidhi and the chief of Ját; on the south by the river Várna, separating it from Kolhápur and Sángli States, and by a few villages of Belgáum District; and on the west by the Sahyádri range of hills, separating it from the Konkan Districts of Kolába and Ratnágiri. The administrative headquarters are at SATARA TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—From Mahábaleshwar in the north-west corner of the District, 4717 feet above the sea, start two hill ranges of equal height and nearly at right angles to each other—one the main range of the Sahyádri, running towards the south and forming the western boundary of the District, and the other the Mahádeo range of hills, which, going first in an easterly and then in a south-easterly direction, extends towards the eastern boundary, where it sinks gradually into the plain. These hills throw out numerous spurs over the District, forming the valleys of the several streams which make up the head-waters of the Kistna, one of the largest rivers in Western India. Except near Mahábaleshwar, and in the valley of the Koina, the hills of the District are very low, and have a strikingly bare and rugged aspect. The Mahádeo range, even in the rainy season, is but scantily covered with verdure. The hills are bold and abrupt, presenting in many cases bare scarps of black rock, and looking at a distance like so many hill fortresses. They consist of trap, intersected by strata of basalt and topped with laterite. Of the different soils on the plains, the commonest is the black loamy clay containing carbonate of lime. This is a very fertile soil, and when well watered is capable of yielding heavy crops. Red clay is found near the foot of the hills. Besides many soils of a light and dark brown colour, white nodules of pure lime, and also light brown loam with a large proportion of lime, are often met with in the east. The water supply, especially in the western parts, is tolerably plentiful; but in the east, during the hot weather, there is great scarcity. The supply comes partly from rivers and partly from numerous ponds and wells. Almost all the rivers rising near Mahábaleshwar on the Sahyádri range, or in the Mahádeo Hills, flow directly or indirectly into the Kistna. Some of these hold water only for a short time after the rains; but by throwing temporary dams across them and leading their water into canals, they are much utilized for irrigation. During the hot season, most of the ponds and wells become dry. The city of SATARA receives its supply through pipes from a reservoir on the Enteshwar Hill, built by Rájá Pratáp Sinh. Scarcity of water is, how-

ever, felt in the city during the hot season, and steps are being taken to increase the supply by improving some of the reservoirs. Irrigation works are in progress on the Kistna near Karád, on the Yerla at Khatgáon, on the Nira near Málshiras, and on the Mán. At Karád, the irrigation dam has been completed, and a channel cut 32 miles in length on the left bank of the river.

Iron and copper ore, found in abundance on the Mahábaleshwar and Mahádeo Hills, were formerly worked by the Musalmán tribe of Dhávdás. Owing, however, to the fall in the value of iron and the rise in the price of fuel, smelting is now no longer carried on.

The forests of the western Subdivisions have a large store of timber and firewood. *Jámbul* (Syzygium jambolanum), *gela* (Vangueria spinosa), and *pesha* (Cylicodaphne wightiana) grow on the main ridge of the Sahyádris, and small teak on the eastern slopes. Sandal-wood is occasionally found, and the mango, jack, and guava are often grown for their fruit. Patches of bamboo sometimes occur. The cinchona plantation, established in Lingmala near Mahábaleshwar, has proved a failure.

Of wild animals, tigers, bears, hyænas, bison, wild boar, and *sámbhar* deer are found only in the western hills, and hares and jackals throughout the District. The once famous breed of horses in the Nira valley has degenerated, and Government efforts to improve it have so far met with little success.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 showed a total population of 1,116,050 persons living in 1428 towns and villages and in 142,687 houses. Density of population on Census area, 207·52 per square mile; square miles per village, 3·80; houses per square mile, 32·08; persons per village, 781·76; and persons per house, 6·47. Classified according to sex, there were 567,398 males and 548,652 females; proportion of males, 50·84 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 203,950, and females, 182,967; total children, 386,917, or 34·66 per cent. Classified according to religion, 1,078,480, or 96·63 per cent., were Hindus; 36,872, or 3·30 per cent., Musalmáns; 84 Pársís; 600 Christians; and 14 'others.' Of the Hindus, who form the great majority of the population, about two-thirds consist of Marhattás and Kumbís, who during the period of Marhattá ascendancy (1674-1817) furnished the bulk of the armies. The Mávlás, Sivají's best soldiers, were drawn from the *ghátmátha* (hill-top) portion of the District. During the last half-century, they have become quiet and orderly, living almost entirely by agriculture. Dark skinned and, as a rule, small, they are active and capable of enduring much fatigue. Bráhmans, employed as priests or Government servants, are found in large numbers in the towns of Sátára and Wái. Besides these, Vánis, Dhangars, Rámosis, Mhárs, and Mángs are among the principal castes met with throughout the District.

History.—The history of Sátára is the subject of an excellent monograph by Mr. W. W. Loch, of the Bombay Civil Service, and can only be summarized very briefly here. Early in the Christian era, Sátára formed part of the dominions of the great Saliváhana, whose capital was at Paitan on the Godávari river. The Chálukya Rájputs next ruled the country, rising to their greatest power in the 10th century, and becoming extinct at the end of the 12th. The Jádhav Rájás of Daulatábád succeeded them for about a hundred years. The first Muhammadan invasion took place in 1294, and the Jádhav dynasty was overthrown in 1312. The Muhammadan power was then fairly established, and in 1345 the Báhmani dynasty rose to power. On the fall of the Báhmanis towards the end of the 15th century, each chief set up for himself; the Bijápur kings finally asserted themselves; and under the Bijápur kings the Marhattás arose. Sátára, with the adjacent Districts of Poona and Sholápur, formed the centre of the Marhattá power. The history of that power belongs to the general annals of India. Its founder, Sivají, commenced his career as a free-lance about the year 1644; and during the rest of the century, his family rapidly aggrandized itself at the expense both of the Bijápur King and of the Delhi Emperor. The general decay of the Mughal Empire from 1700 to 1750 opened the way for the Marhattá supremacy. The Peshwás, or Mayors of the Palace, date their power from Balají, about 1718. In 1749, the sovereignty passed from the Sátára Rájás to the Bráhman Peshwás, with their headquarters in the adjoining District of Poona. The descendants of Sivají became little more than pensioned prisoners, but they clung to the title of Rájá of Sátára. The battle of Pánipat in 1761 broke the power of the Peshwás and the great Marhattá confederacy. But the Peshwá still remained the most important native ruler in India till the rise of Haidar Alí. Repeated wars with the English ended in the final defeat of the Peshwá's army at Ashti in 1818. His territory was thereupon annexed; but the English, with a politic generosity, freed the titular Marhattá Rájá (the descendant of Sivají) from the Peshwá's control, and assigned to him the principality of Sátára. Captain Grant Duff was appointed his tutor until he should gain some experience in rule. In April 1822, the Sátára territory was formally handed over to the Rájá, and thenceforward was managed by him entirely. After a time, he became impatient of the control exercised by the British Government; and as he persisted in intriguing and holding communications with other princes, in contravention of his treaty, he was deposed in 1839, and sent as a State prisoner to Benares, and his brother Sháhjí was placed on the throne. This prince, who did much for the improvement of his people, died in 1848 without male heirs; and after long deliberation, it was decided that the State should be resumed by the British Government. Liberal pensions were granted to the

Rájá's three widows, and they were allowed to live in the palace at Sátára. The survivor of these ladies died in 1874.

Agriculture.—Agriculture, the main occupation of the people, supports 934,186 persons, or 83 per cent. of the entire population. The black soil, especially along the valley of the Kistna and its tributaries, is very fertile, yielding two crops a year. *Joár* (Sorghum vulgare) and *bájra* (Penicillaria spicata), the staple food of the people, occupy nearly half the cultivated area. Rice-fields are found only in the west, along river banks. In the south and east, cotton (Gossypium herbaceum) is grown, most of it of a local variety, but some brought from Hinganghát. Near Mahábaleshwar, several European vegetables, especially potatoes, grow freely, and to a great extent supply the Bombay market. In some of the hill villages, which have a heavy rainfall, *nachni* (Eleusine corocana) and *vari* (Panicum miliare) are raised on the *kumári* system, that is, by cutting down and burning brushwood and sowing the seeds in the ashes. This practice, formerly general, has, on account of the damage it does to the forests, been to a large extent prohibited.

In 1877, 1,066,079 acres were under cultivation, of which 33,821 were twice cropped, and thus affect the percentages. Grain crops, consisting chiefly of *joár* and *bájra*, occupied 893,851 acres, or 81·27 per cent. of the cultivated area; pulses, 107,596 acres, or 9·87 per cent.; oil-seeds, 42,976 acres, or 3·90 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops occupied the remainder.

In March 1877, *joár*, the staple grain, sold at the rate of 22 lbs. the rupee (10s. 2d. per cwt.). At the same time, the daily wage of unskilled labour varied from 2¼d. to 6d. (1½ to 4 *annas*).

Commerce and Manufactures.—Besides *kamblis* (blankets) and coarse cotton cloth, the chief exports of the District are grain, tobacco, oil-seeds, chillies, molasses, and a little raw cotton. The imports are—European piece-goods, hardware, paper, dried fruits, refined sugar, and salt. Weekly or bi-weekly markets are held in large villages and towns. Of these, Mhasvad is famous for its blankets, and Belandi for its cattle. Cotton is spun by women of the Kumbi, Mhár, and Máng castes. The yarn thus prepared is made up by Hindu weavers of the Sáli or Koshti caste, and by Musalmáns, into cloth, tape, and ropes. Blankets (*kamblis*), which command a large sale, are woven by men of the Sangar caste. Sátára brass dishes and Shirol lamps are well known throughout the District. Notwithstanding the great number of carpenters, wheels and axles for cart-making have to be brought from Chiplún in Ratnágiri. Paper from rags is still manufactured to some extent.

Means of Communication. — Of the several lines of road in the District, extending over a total length of 288 miles, the Poona and Belgáum road, crossing the District from north to south and bridged and metalled throughout, is the most important. One branch of this

line breaks off at Karád, and runs along the valley of the Koina to Chiplún; while two other branches from Surúl and Sátárá, passing by the town of Wái, go in the direction of Mahábaleshwar and then towards Mahád, a Konkan seaport. The old Poona road by the Salpa Pass is now almost abandoned. Of the other lines that cross the District from east to west, the chief are the Pandharpur road and the two Tásgáon lines, one from Sátára and one from Karád. Along these and the Belgáum line, a large bullock-cart traffic passes. Within the limits of the District, the Sahyádri Hills are crossed by thirteen roads or bullock tracks, of which the principal are the Kamatgi, Pasarni, Kumbhárli, Varándha, and Fitzgerald. Besides houses for the use of District officers when on tour, village offices, *cháudis*, and temples, there are 243 *dharmsálas* or rest-houses for the accommodation of travellers.

Administration.—The total revenue raised in 1877 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £237,092, showing on a population of 1,116,050 an incidence of 4s. 6d. per head. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £181,875, or 76 per cent. of the total amount. The other chief items are stamps, excise, forest, and local funds. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded £11,900. There are 13 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 103,052 persons. Their aggregate receipts amounted in 1877-78 to £6992, and the average incidence of taxation was about 2d. per head.

The administration of the District in revenue matters is, exclusive of the Superintendent of Malcolmpet, entrusted to a Collector and 6 Assistant Collectors, four of whom are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 8 courts. The number of suits decided in 1874 amounted to 12,333. Thirty-nine officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police force consisted in 1877 of 190 officers and 797 constables, giving 1 policeman to every 1073 persons of the population. The total cost was £13,040, equal to £2, 12s. per square mile of area and 2¾d. per head of population. The number of convicted persons was 5245, being 1 person to every 214 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Compared with 114 schools and 1168 pupils in 1865, there were in 1877, 219 schools with a roll-call of 10,435 names, or, on an average, 1 school for every 6 villages. Three vernacular papers were published in Sátára District in 1877-78.

Medical Aspects.—According to the height and distance from the sea, the climate varies in different parts of the District. In the east, especially in the months of April and May, the heat is considerable. But near the Gháts it is much more moderate, being tempered by the sea-breeze. Again, while few parts of Western India have a heavier and more con-

tinuous rainfall than the western slope of the Sahyádri Hills, in some of the eastern Subdivisions the supply is very scanty. The average annual rainfall at Mahábaleshwar is more than 200 inches, while in Sátára town it is only 40 inches, and in some places farther east it is less than 12. The west of the District draws almost its whole rain supply from the south-west monsoon, between June and October. Some of the eastern Subdivisions have, however, a share in the north-east monsoon, and rain falls there in November and December. The May or 'mango showers,' as they are called, also influence the cultivator's prospects.

Seven dispensaries and 2 civil hospitals, one at Sátára and the other at Malcolmpet, afforded medical relief to 942 in-door and 33,887 out-door patients in 1877-78, and 31,176 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a death-rate of 22·4 per thousand in 1876-77.

Sátára.—Chief town and headquarters of Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 41′ 25″ N., and long. 74° 2′ 10″ E., 56 miles south of Poona, near the confluence of the Kistna and the Yena, in the highlands of the Deccan, where the country generally inclines towards the east. The strong fort of Sátára, midway between the Kistna and the Torna-ghát, is perched on the summit of a small, steep, rocky hill. It takes its name from the seventeen walls, towers, and gates which it possessed, or is supposed to have possessed. At the close of the war with the Peshwá, in 1818, it fell, after a short resistance, into the hands of the British, who restored it with the adjacent territory to the representative of Sivají's line, who, during the Peshwá's ascendency, had lived there as a State prisoner under the name of the Rájá of Sátára. In 1848, on the death of the last Rájá, the principality reverted to the British. The town of Sátára, lying at the foot of the hill fortress, consisted in 1820 of one long street of tiled houses, built partly of stone and partly of brick. After the breaking up of the Rájá's court, the population considerably decreased. But Sátára is still a large place, with a population, in 1872, of 24,484. Besides the courts of the Subdivisional and District revenue officers, it possesses a District Judge's Court and a High School. The Rájá's palace is plain and commonplace. Sátára has few large or ornamental buildings, but the town is clean and the streets broad. On account of its high position and its exposure to the sea-breeze, the climate is unusually pleasant. The water supply is drawn by pipes from a reservoir on the hill of Enteshwar.

Satásgarh (or '*Sixty Towers*').—Ruin in PANDUAH TOWN, Maldah District, Bengal. *See* PANDUAH.

Sátgáon (or *Saptagrám*, 'The Seven Villages,' so called from seven sages who gave their names to the same number of villages).—Ruined town in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38′ 20″ N., long. 88° 25′ 10″ E. The mercantile capital of Bengal from the Puránic age until the founda-

tion of HUGLI by the Portuguese. The decay of this port dates from the silting up of the channel of the SARASWATI, and nothing now remains to indicate its former grandeur except a ruined mosque; the modern village consists of a few miserable huts. Sátgáon is said to have been one of the resting places of Bhágíratha. De Barros writes that it was 'less frequented than Chittagong, on account of the port not being so convenient for the entrance and departure of ships.' Purchas states it to be 'a fair citie for a citie of the Moores, and very plentiful, but sometimes subject to Patnaw.' In 1632, when Húglí was declared a royal port, all the public officers were withdrawn from Sátgáon, which rapidly fell into ruins.—For a full description of the ancient Sátgáon, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 307-310.

Sathamba.—State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay.—*See* SUTHUMBA.

Sáthan.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; pleasantly situated on high ground overlooking the Gumti river, 40 miles north-west of Sultánpur. Founded by Sáthan, a Bhar, and called after him. After the Mutiny of 1857, a certain Sháh Abdul Latíf settled here as a 'missionary of pure religion,' and built a mosque, at which hundreds of the Sunni sect assemble every Friday. The *'ídgáh* of Sáthan is a place of considerable resort for the faithful at the 'Id festival. Pop. (1869), 2253, principally Shaikhs and Sayyids.

Sátkhirá.—Subdivision of the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal, lying between 21° 38′ and 22° 56′ 45″ N. lat., and between 88° 56′ 30″ and 89° 4′ E. long. Area, 713 square miles; villages, 1011; houses, 62,737. Pop. (1872), 423,364, of whom 197,536, or 46·7 per cent., were Hindus; 225,788, or 53·3 per cent., Muhammadans; 16 Christians; and 24 of other religions. Proportion of males in total population, 53·3 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 594; villages per square mile, 1·42; persons per village, 419; houses per square mile, 88; inmates per house, 6·8. This Subdivision consists of the 5 police circles of Kalároá, Sátkhirá, Mágurá, Kálíganj, and Asásuní. In 1870-71, it contained 1 magisterial court, a regular police of 170 men, and a rural force 707 strong; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £6845, 16s.

Sátkhirá.—Headquarters town of Sátkhirá Subdivision, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated on the Betná river, in lat. 22° 42′ 35″ N., and long. 89° 7′ 55″ E. Pop. (1872), 8979; municipal income, £253, 4s.; rate of taxation, 6¾d. per head of population; municipal police, 19 men. The town contains many Hindu temples; a large vernacular school or *pathsála*, entirely supported by the *zamíndár;* and a Government dispensary, in charge of a native sub-assistant surgeon. Once a rural village, Sátkhirá is now an important provincial town, a canal having been cut to the Ichámatí river; fair roads lead to the nearest marts of traffic, thus making it an emporium for the sale and

shipment of the produce of the surrounding country. Large trade in sugar and rice.

Satlaj.—One of the five rivers of the Punjab.—*See* SUTLEJ.

Satlásna.—Native State in the Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 4951. The principal agricultural products are millet, wheat, Indian corn, and sugar-cane. The present (1876-77) chief is Thákur Hom Sinh, a Hindu of the Parmár Koli tribe. He is thirty years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £450; and pays a tribute of £168 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £73 to the Rájá of Edar. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There is 1 school in the State, with 43 pupils.

Satodar Wáori.—One of the petty States of Hállár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £1200; of which £146 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £46 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sátpáti.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74 — imports, £852, and exports, £4253.

Sátpura.—Hill range or tableland, which begins at AMARKANTAK and extends westward across the Central Provinces, and beyond them nearly to the western coast. The name was formerly restricted to that portion of the range which divides the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Tápti valleys; while sometimes the term Vindhyá has been extended to include the Sátpuras, together with the parallel range on the northern side of the Narbadá, in one general appellation for the great chain which stretches across Central India and separates Hindustán proper from the Deccan. Geologically, however, the Vindhyán sandstones are entirely distinct from the Mahádeo and other groups which enter into the composition of the Sátpuras; and geographically, the line of demarcation between the two ranges is defined by the well-marked valley of a great river. Taking Amarkantak as the eastern boundary, the Sátpuras stretch from east to west for about 600 miles, while their greatest breadth from north to south exceeds 100 miles. The range forms a rough triangle. From Amarkantak, 3328 feet above sea level, an outer ridge runs south-west for about 100 miles to the Saletekri Hills in Bhandára District. This ridge, known as the MAIKAL range, constitutes the base of the triangle. Starting from this base, the Sátpura range shrinks, as it proceeds westward, from a broad tableland to two parallel dorsal ridges, bounding on either side the valley of the Tápti. Just east of Asírgarh occurs a break, through which the railway from Bombay and Khándesh to Jabalpur is carried; and ASIRGARH marks the point where the Sátpuras leave the Central Provinces. Following the range from east to west in Mandla District, the slope is mainly northward towards the Narbadá.

There are four principal upland valleys, each sending down a feeder to that river. The eastern valleys are higher than those to the west. Between the Kharmer and Burhner rivers, the country consists of a rugged mass of bare and lofty mountains hurled together by volcanic action. Their general formation is basaltic, intermixed with laterite, with which the higher peaks are capped. The Chaurádádar plateau, 3300 feet high, has an area of 6 square miles. In Seoní District, the plateaux of Seoní and Lakhnádon are from 1800 to 2220 feet high. The slope of the country is from north to south; and in the lowest watershed, the Waingangá river rises. In Chhindwára, also, the country slopes southwards. The principal upland valleys are those of the Pench and Kolbirá. The general elevation is about 2200 feet, but the plateau of Motúr attains a height of 3500 feet. In Betúl, the slope to the south continues; and the Tápti rises and flows in a deep and narrow gorge. In the south-west corner of the District, the hill of Khámlá rises 3700 feet high. To the north of Betúl, spurs from the Sátpuras occupy a considerable portion of Hoshangábád. Dhúpgarh (4454 feet) is the highest point; and the picturesque plateau of Pachmarhí, 3481 feet above sea level, covers an area of 12 square miles. South of Hoshangábád, sandstone and metamorphic rocks emerge, and form a great portion of the hills of the Betúl and Pachmarhí country. To the east, trap predominates. In Nimár District, the wild and barren range which parts the valleys of the Tápti and the Narbadá has an average width of 15 miles. On its highest point stands the fortress of Asírgarh.

Sátpura.—State forest lying along the southern slopes of the Sátpura Hills, in Seoní, Chhindwára and Nágpur Districts, Central Provinces. Area, about 1000 square miles. *Sáj* forms the chief growth in the eastern, and teak in the western portion. The proximity of Kámthi (Kamptee) and Nágpur has caused the exhaustion of all but young timber; but what remains is now strictly preserved, and plantation experiments have been conducted at Sukáta and Sítájhari.

Satrikh.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nawábganj and Partábgarh, on the east by Siddhaur, on the south by Haidargarh, and on the west by Dewa. Area, 46 square miles or 29,404 acres, of which 19,318 acres are cultivated; pop. (1869), 24,157, viz. 21,694 Hindus and 2463 Muhammadans. Of the 42 villages comprising the *parganá*, 17 are held in *tálukdárí*, 20 in *zamíndárí*, and 5 in *pattidárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £4798.

Satrikh.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh, and headquarters of Satrikh *parganá;* situated 5 miles south-east of Bára Bánki town, in lat. 26° 51′ 30″ N., and long. 81° 14′ 10″ E. Pop. (1869), 3584, viz. 2177 Hindus and 1407 Muhammadans. The town was originally founded by a Hindu Rájá named Sabtrikh, but was captured by the Muhammadans under Sálár Sahu, a brother-in-law of Mahmúd of

Ghazní. Sálár Sahu died here, and an annual fair is held at his shrine, attended by about 18,000 persons.

Satrunjaya (*Shetrunja*).—Sacred hill near Pálitána in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* PALITANA TOWN.

Sátúr.—Very old *zamíndárí* village in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 26′ N., long. 77° 31′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 7155, inhabiting 1532 houses. A station on the South Indian Railway.

Satyamangalam.—Fortified town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 11° 30′ 20″ N., long. 77° 17′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 3412, inhabiting 645 houses. The fort is situated on the Bhavání river, and was built by the Náiks of Madura. It was taken by the Mysore (Maisur) generals in 1657. Owing to its situation commanding the fords at the foot of the Gazzalháthi Pass, Satyamangalam was of considerable strategic importance in our wars with Haidar Alí and Tipú. Colonel Wood took the place in 1768, but Haidar recaptured it the following year. In 1790, Colonel Floyd occupied Satyamangalam, and between the fort and Danayakkankottai fought a severe battle with Tipú in the same year, falling back upon Meadow's column, but effecting his retreat with such skill as almost to convert it into a victory. There are two Ghát roads to the uplands from Satyamangalam—the Gazzalháthi and the Hassanúr roads. The latter is the most frequented route into Mysore.

Saugor.—District, Subdivision, and Town, in the Central Provinces. —*See* SAGAR.

Saugor.—Island at the mouth of the Húglí river, Bengal. *See* SAGAR.

Saundatti.—Chief town of the Parasgad Subdivision of Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 41 miles east by south of Belgáum town, in lat. 15° 45′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 9′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), 8180. About 2 miles due south of Saundatti are the ruins of an extensive hill fort called Parasgad, from which the whole Subdivision derives its name. Sub-judge's court and dispensary. About 5½ miles north-west of Saundatti, a large Hindu fair in honour of the goddess Yellama is held twice a year about the full moon in April or May and in November or December. On each occasion, from 15,000 to 20,000 persons attend.

Sauráth.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; 8 miles west of Madhubaní. Famous for the large *melá* (religious fair) which takes place annually in June or July, when vast numbers of Bráhmans assemble to settle their children's marriages. Sauráth contains a temple of Mahádeo, built about 1845 by the Darbhangah Rájá; close to this building is a tank, shaded by a fine mango grove, under which people buy and sell during the *melá*. At other times the place is deserted.

Sáusár.—The southern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Chhindwára District, Central Provinces. Area, 1088 square miles; pop. (1872), 99,510, residing in 359 villages or townships and 20,106 houses.

Sausár.—Town in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 40′ N., and long. 78° 50′ E., 34 miles south of Chhindwára town, on the main road to Nágpur. Estimated pop. 4077, chiefly agricultural. Sausár has a Government school, and a small fort; the proprietor is the representative of the Gond dynasty of Deogarh.

Savanúr (*Sawanúr*).—Native State, situated within Dhárwár District, Bombay; lying between 14° 56′ 45″ and 15° 1′ 45″ N. lat., and between 75° 21′ 45″ and 75° 25′ E. long. Area, 66 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 17,288; estimated gross revenue, £7327. The principal products are cotton, *joár*, rice, *kulthi*, *múng*, cocoa-nut, castor-oil seed, *tur*, *pán*, and sugar-cane. The reigning family are Muhammadans of Afghán descent. Abdul Raúf Khán, the founder of the family, obtained in 1680 from the Emperor Aurangzeb the grant of the *jágír* of Bankápur, Torgal, and Azímnagar, with a command of 7000 horse. The family, though connected by marriage with Tipú Sultán, was entirely stript of its possessions by him, and the Nawáb sought the protection of the Peshwá, from whom he received a pension of £4800 per annum. This was subsequently converted into a grant of territory, yielding an equal amount of revenue, through the intervention of General Wellesley. The present Nawáb of Savanúr is Abdul Dalil Khán, who was born about 1860.

Savanúr.—Chief town of Savanúr State, Bombay. Lat. 14° 58′ N., long. 75° 23′ 5″ N.; pop. (1872), 8686.

Savandrug. — Hill fort in Bangalore District, Mysore, locally known as the Magadi Hill, 4024 feet above sea level. Lat. 12° 55′ N., long. 77° 21′ E. It consists of an enormous mass of granite, standing on a base 8 miles in circumference. The summit is divided by a chasm into two peaks—the *Kari* or black, and the *Bili* or white—each of which is abundantly supplied with water. The first fortifications are said to have been erected in 1543, by Sámanta Ráya, who gave the hill his own name of Sámanta-durga. The present appellation dates from the end of the 16th century, when Immadi Kempe Gauda of Bangalore established his stronghold here, in which his family maintained themselves until 1728. The fort was captured in that year by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore, from whom it passed into the hands of Haidar Alí. In 1791, Savandrug was stormed by a British army commanded by Lord Cornwallis. On December 10, a force under Colonel Stuart encamped within 3 miles of the place; and after great difficulties in bringing up the battering train, the bombardment was opened on the 20th, and in three days the breach was declared practicable. The

assault was delivered on the following day at eleven o'clock in the fore-noon, under the eyes of Lord Cornwallis. The whole line of fortifications was carried within an hour, without the loss of a single life on the British side.

Savari (*Seberi, Severi*).—River in Central India.—*See* SABARI.

Sávda.—Chief town of the Sávda Subdivision of Khándesh District, Bombay, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 285 miles north-east of Bombay city; situated in lat. 21° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 56′ E. Pop. (1872), 7552. Sávda was finally ceded by the Nizám to the Peshwá in 1763, and was shortly afterwards bestowed on Sardár Ráste, whose daughter was given in marriage to the Peshwá. Chief trade, cotton, gram, linseed, and wheat. Post office.

Sávitri (*Savatri*).—River of Bombay, rising on the western declivity of the Mahábaleshwar range, Sátára District, in lat. 18° 28′ N., and long. 73° 30′ E. It flows west past the town of Mhar, and falls into the Arabian Sea in lat. 17° 58′ N., and long. 73° 3′ E. Thornton gives the total length of the river at about 70 miles, and says 'it is navigable as far as Mhar, 30 miles from its mouth, and was formerly accessible at all times by large ships; but, a sandbank at the mouth constantly increasing during the south-west monsoon, its facilities for navigation are greatly diminished. The bar has 10 feet of water at low tide, and 21 at high water, spring tides; and ships may anchor inside in 5 fathoms.'

Sáwantwári.—Native State in Bombay, under the charge of a Political Superintendent; situated about 200 miles south of Bombay city, between 15° 38′ 30″ and 16° 14′ N. lat., and between 73° 37′ and 74° 23′ E. long. Area, about 900 square miles; pop. (1872), 190,814. The State is bounded on the north and west by the British District of Ratnágiri, on the east by the Sahyádri Mountains, and on the south by the Portuguese territory of Goa. The general aspect of the country is strikingly picturesque. From the sea-coast to the foot of the Sahyádri Hills, a distance varying from 20 to 25 miles, are densely wooded hills, and in the valleys, gardens and groves of cocoa-nut and betel-nut palms. The chief streams are the Kárli on the north, and the Terekhol on the south. Both are navigable for small native craft; the Terekhol for about 12, and the Karli for about 15 miles. The climate is humid and relaxing, with a heavy rainfall, averaging for the ten years ending 1872, 133½ inches. April is the hottest month in the year, for in May—though the temperature is slightly higher—a strong sea-breeze, the precursor of the south-west monsoon, tempers the heat. Especially near the Sahyádri Hills, the State is rich in forests of teak, blackwood, *ain* (Terminalia glabra), *kher* (Acacia catechu), *jámba* (Mimosa xylocaspa). Nearer the sea, the more important trees are the jackwood, mango, and *bhirand*, whose fruit yields *kokam* oil. The

principal fruits are mangoes and plantains, which are abundant and of excellent quality, citrons, limes, and jack fruit. Cocoa-nuts and cashew-nuts are very plentiful. The staple agricultural produce is rice; but the quantity grown is not sufficient for the wants of the people, and a good deal is imported. Excepting rice, none but the coarsest grains and pulses are raised. A species of oil-seed, *til* (Sesamum orientale), hemp, and black and red pepper, are also grown, but neither cotton nor tobacco. Both soil and climate are against the cultivation of wheat and other superior grains. For these, the people have to look to the country east of the Sahyádri Hills, whence during the fair season, from October to June, large supplies come. Coffee has been grown with success, and it is believed that the spurs from the Sahyádri range are suited to its cultivation on a large scale. Iron-ore of fair quality is found in the neighbourhood of the Rámghát, in the Sahyádri range. The forests and wooded slopes of the Sahyádri Hills contain large numbers of tigers, leopards, bison, *sámbhar* deer, etc.

Population.—Of the total population, in 1872, of 190,814 persons, 182,688 were Hindus, 4152 Muhammadans, and 3954 Christians. The last are all Roman Catholics, and consist of Indo-Portuguese and natives who have embraced Christianity. The common language of the people is a dialect of Marathí, known as Kurauli. The sturdy and easily managed Marhattás and Mhars of this State are favourite recruits for the Bombay Native Infantry regiments. The inhabitants generally are poor, and are engaged chiefly in agriculture.

Manufactures. — Salt of an inferior kind is manufactured, but the quantity is small and scarcely suffices for the wants of the people. The principal industries of the State consist of gold and silver embroidery work on both leather and cloth; fans, baskets, and boxes of *khaskhas* grass, ornamented with gold thread and beetles' wings; lacquered toys, and playing cards; and elegant drawing-room ornaments carved from the horn of the buffalo and bison.

Means of Communication.—There are no railways; but an excellent trunk road has recently been constructed from the seaport of Vingorla, which, passing through the State, leads by an easy gradient over the Sahyádri Hills to Belgáum and the Southern Marhattá Country. The other chief lines of communication with the Deccan are the Rámghát, the Talghát, and the Phondághát.

Trade.—Within the limits of the State there is not much local trade; but during the fair season, a considerable quantity of cotton, hemp, and grain from the rich Districts of the Southern Marhattá Country passes coastwards, especially to the port of Vingorla. Compared with the exports, the imports at Vingorla are small.

History.—About three hundred years ago, one Mang Sáwant of the Bhonslá family, whose headquarters were at the village of Hodwára,

about 6 miles from Wári, stoutly held his own against the Muhammadan power then established at Bijápur. After his death, the country was subjugated by the Muhammadans, and Mang's successors are supposed to have become feudatories of the Bijápur kings. The chief who freed his country from the Muhammadan yoke and established its independence was Khem Sáwant Bhonslá, who ruled from 1675 to 1709, and was a contemporary of Sháhu, the grandson and successor of Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá power. Sháhu assigned to him, conjointly with the chief of Kolába, half the revenue of the Sálsi Mahál. It was during the time of Khem's successor (1709-1737) that the Sáwantwári State first entered into relations with the British Government. A treaty was concluded between them against the notorious piratical chief, Kanojí Angria of Kolába. The chief who ruled from 1755 to 1803, under the name of Khem Sáwant the Great, married in 1763 the daughter of Jáyají Sindhia; and consequently the title of Rái Bahádur was conferred upon him by the Emperor of Delhi. The chieftain of Kolhápur, envious of this honour, made a descent on Wári, and captured several hill fortresses, which were, however, through Sindhia's influence, subsequently restored. The rule of Khem Sáwant, who, not content with wars on land, also took to piracy, was one long contest against Kolhápur, the Peshwá, the Portuguese, and the British. Khem Sáwant died childless in 1803; and the contest for the succession was not decided till 1805, when Khem Sáwant's widow, Lakshmibái, adopted a child, Rámchandra Sáwant *alias* Bháu Sáhib. This child lived for three years, and was then (1805) strangled in bed. Phond Sáwant, a minor chosen to fill his place, died in 1812, and was succeeded by his son, Khem Sáwant, a child of eight years. This chief, when he came of age, proved unable to manage his estate, and after several revolutions and much disturbance, at last in 1838 agreed to make over the administration to the British Government. After this, rebellion twice broke out (in 1839 and 1844), but the disturbances were soon suppressed, and the country has since remained quiet. The present (1876-77) chief is Sar-Desái Raghunáth Sáwant Bhonslá. He is a minor of fifteen, and is under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £30,000, and maintains a military force of 436 men, styled the Sáwantwári Local Corps. The family of the chief hold a title authorizing adoption, and in point of succession follow the rule of primogeniture. There are 36 schools in the State, with a total of 1819 pupils.

Sáyla.—Native State in the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay; comprising 38 villages. Pop. (1872), 16,528. The climate is hot and dry, but healthy. Cotton is the chief produce; the usual grains are also grown. Dyeing is the only industry of consequence. The nearest

port is Dholera. Sáyla ranks officially as a 'third-class' State in Káthiáwár; and the ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present chief (1876-77), Thákur Kesri Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste, is fifty-four years old, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £6000, and pays a tribute of £1551 jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There are 2 schools in the State, with a total of 201 pupils.

Sáyla.—Chief town of Sáyla State, Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 32′ N., and long. 71° 32′ E. Pop. (1872), 6623.

Sayyidábád.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the fertile Doáb portion of the District. Area, 180 square miles, of which 150 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 108,305; land revenue, £28,681; total Government revenue, £31,552; rental paid by cultivators, £41,408.

Sayyidnagar.—Old and decayed town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2980. Distant from Urái 17 miles south-west, among the ravines of the Betwa. Large exports of cloth, dyed red and yellow; considerable manufacture and dyeing of cotton. Police station; school. Local revenue, £74.

Sayyidpur.—Municipal town in Farídpur District, Bengal, on the Barásiá river, in lat. 23° 25′ 10″ N., and long. 89° 43′ E. Estimated pop. (1876), 6324, mainly supported by river traffic. Large import trade in cotton, spices, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal utensils. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £166; incidence of taxation, 5⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sayyidpur.—Western *tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the angle formed by the junction of the Gumti with the Ganges. Consists chiefly of low alluvial soil. Area, 247 square miles, of which 152 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 147,879; land revenue, £22,609; total Government revenue, £23,847; rental paid by cultivators, £37,374.

Sayyidpur (*Sayyidpur Bhitárí*).—Village and ruins in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Sayyidpur *tahsíl*; lying in lat. 25° 32′ 5″ N., and long. 83° 15′ 40″ E., on the north bank of the Ganges, 30 miles west of Gházípur town. Government charitable dispensary. Chiefly noticeable for its numerous remains of Hindu or Buddhist origin, including a flat-roofed, richly carved, massive stone building, besides several fragments and entire figures of ancient sculpture. At Bhitri, 5 miles north-east of the town, stands a sandstone monolith, 28 feet in height, of which 5 or 6 feet are buried beneath the ground. It bears an inscription recording the achievements of five kings of the Gupta dynasty. A bridge of three arches,

built by the Muhammadans out of stones from Hindu structures, spans a small river.

Sayyidpur.—*Táluk* of the Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind. Area, 167 square miles; pop. (1872), 20,488; gross revenue (1873-74), £4574.

Sayyidwálá.—Village in Montgomery District, Punjab, and headquarters of a police circle; situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 73° 31′ E., on the north bank of the Rávi, 20 miles north-east of Gugaira. Pop. (1868), 2854.

Sealkote.—District, *tahsíl*, and town in the Punjab.—*See* SIALKOT.

Seberi (*Severi*).—River in Central India.—*See* SABARI.

Secunderábád.—*Tahsíl* and town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SIKANDARABAD.

Secunderábád (*Sikandarábád*, or 'Alexander's Town').—British military cantonment in the Native State of Haidarábád or the Nizám's Dominions; situated 6 miles north-east of Haidarábád city, in lat. 17° 26′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 33′ E., at an elevation of 1830 feet above sea level. Secunderábád cantonment is the largest military station in India, and forms the headquarters of the Haidarábád Subsidiary Force, which constitutes a Division of the Madras army. The military force stationed here in April 1880 consisted of one regiment of European and another of Native Cavalry, one battery of Royal Horse Artillery, three batteries of Royal Artillery (field and garrison), two regiments of British and three of Native Infantry, with a company of Sappers and Miners. An Ordnance Establishment has charge of the Arsenal, and there is also a large Commissariat Staff. This force is maintained by the British Government, under the terms of a treaty with the Nizám dated 21st May 1853, in lieu of certain contingent and auxiliary forces which had been previously raised by the Nizám to co-operate with the British army, but had proved inefficient. The cost of the force is defrayed out of the revenues of certain Districts ceded by the Nizám under the treaty of May 1853, revised by a second treaty in 1860. (*See* HAIDARABAD STATE.) Up to the year 1850, the cantonment of Secunderábád consisted of a line of barracks and huts, extending for a distance of 3 miles from east to west, with the artillery in the front and on the left flank, and the infantry on the right. Since that date, however, the cantonment boundaries have been extended as far as BOLARAM, covering a total area of 19 square miles, including many interspersed villages. New double-storied barracks have been erected for the European soldiers, and the quarters for the Native troops, which are situated at some distance, are also comfortably built. The country for many miles around undulates into hummocks, with a few outcrops of underlying rock, crossed from east to west by greenstone dikes. East of

the cantonment are two large outbursts of granite; in the north-east is a granite hill known as Múl Alí, and near it another called Kadam Rasúl, from a legend that it bears an impress of Muhammad's foot. Shady trees line the roads of the cantonment, and near the European barracks and Native lines are clusters of date and palmyra palms. Otherwise the face of the country is bare, with but little depth of soil in the elevated parts. Cultivation is carried on in the dips and valleys, in several of which tanks have been constructed. The water supply from wells is not abundant. Immediately to the south-west of the cantonment is a large artificial reservoir or tank, known as the Husáin Ságar, about 3 miles in circumference. Secunderábád town, which forms the cantonment *bázár*, contains about 8000 houses (7938 in 1866), and a population, calculated at 4 persons per house, of about 32,000, all engaged in business as shopkeepers, petty traders, or artisans. The Haidarábád Subsidiary Force is not the sole military body in the neighbourhood. Adjoining the Secunderábád cantonment to the north is the Boláram cantonment, one of the stations of the Haidarábád contingent under the immediate authority of His Highness the Nizám. The force stationed here consists of one regiment of cavalry, one of infantry, and a battery of artillery. Again, about 2 miles south of Secunderábád cantonment, are the lines of the Haidarábád Reformed Troops, also belonging to the Nizám, comprising artillery, cavalry, and infantry, under the command of a European officer. Altogether, within a space of 10 miles from north to south, about 8000 disciplined soldiers are cantoned. During the Mutiny of 1857, an unsuccessful attempt was made to tamper with the fidelity of the troops at Secunderábád. An attack on the British Residency was repulsed; and during the troubled times of 1857-58 much good service was rendered by both the Subsidiary Force and the Haidarábád contingent. In the rainy season, especially towards its close, the climate of Secunderábád and its neighbourhood is unhealthy, both for Europeans and natives. The rainfall varies greatly; during the thirty years 1841-70 it averaged 27 inches, the range being from 13 to 43 inches. The prevalent diseases are fevers, dysentery, and rheumatism.

Seebsaugor.—District, Subdivision, and town in Assam.—*See* SIBSAGAR.

Segaulí.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated 15 miles from Motíhárí, on the Bettiá road, in lat. 26° 46′ 41″ N., and long. 84° 47′ 51″ E. A military station, and ordinarily occupied by a regiment of Native cavalry. An embankment protects the cantonment from inundation by the Sikhrená river, which flows a little distance to the north. In 1857, the main body of the 12th Regiment of Irregular Horse stationed here broke into open mutiny, and murdered their commanding officer; though a detachment did good service during the

subsequent operations in Oudh.—(See Sir J. W. Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, vol. iii. pp. 102-107.)

Seghúr (Sígúr) Ghát.—Mountain pass in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras, running down the north face of the hills from Mutinád to near the village of Seghúr. Lat. 11° 29′ to 11° 31′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 43′ 30″ to 76° 43′ 35″ E. Being practicable for laden carts and other wheeled conveyances, it is the most frequented of all the Nílgiri *ghâts.* 'By this pass,' says Pharoah, 'communication is kept up with Bangalore, Madras, and all places to the northward; and the chief bulk of European supplies, heavy baggage, horse gram, rice, etc., comes to the settlement by it. It also affords the means of transit for the teak timber used on the hills in the form of rafters, planks, etc.; the road passes near the forests where the trees are cut.' The corrected spelling is Sígúr.

Sehore.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India; situated on the right bank of the Saven, in lat. 23° 11′ 55″ N., and long. 77° 7′ 14″ E., on the route from Ságar (Saugor) to Asírgarh, 132 miles south-west of the former place, and 152 north-east of the latter; distant from Bhopál city 22 miles south-west. Manufacture of printed muslins. Good *bázár.*

Sehwán.—Sub-District of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, lying between 25° 13′ and 26° 56′ N. lat., and between 67° 10′ and 68° 29′ E. long. Area, 3646 square miles; pop. (1872), 162,836 souls. Bounded north by Mehar, a Subdivision of Shikárpur; east by the Indus; south by the Jerruck (Jhirak) Subdivision of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and west by the Khirthar and Pab Mountains. The administrative headquarters are at KOTRI TOWN.

The Sub-District of Sehwán differs from the rest of Sind in being more hilly. It contains the only large lake in the Province, viz. the MANCHHAR (Manchur). The chief hills are the LAKI range, an offshoot from the Khirthar Mountains; and the Jatil Hills. There are 37 Government canals in Sehwán, the principal being the WESTERN NARA, the ARAL, the PHITO, and the KARO. The Sub-District contains several hot springs. Game and fish of all kinds are abundant. The Government forests cover an area of 24,474 acres, and yielded in 1873-74 a revenue of £3185. The population of Sehwán in 1872 numbered 162,836, of whom 139,158 were Muhammadans, 23,191 Hindus, and 387 'others.' The principal antiquities are the forts of SEHWAN and Rání-ka-kot. (*See* SANN.)

Agriculture.—The Dádú and Sehwán *táluks* contain perhaps the finest wheat lands in the whole of Sind. Much cultivation is carried on in the neighbourhood of the Manchhar Lake, after the subsidence of the annual inundation. The principal crops of the Sub-District are wheat, *joár*, cotton, barley, pulse, oil-seeds, and vegetables. The prevailing tenure is the *zamíndárí;* about one-twelfth of the whole area of Sehwán

is held in *jágír*, or revenue-free. There is a large transit trade in wool, cotton, dried fruits, etc. (*See* KARACHI TOWN.) The local traffic consists of fish, mats, cloths, oil, *ghí*, and grain. The principal manufactures comprise carpets, coarse cotton cloth, rugs, and mats. The aggregate length of roads in the Sub-District is about 450 miles; the number of ferries is 20, nearly all of which are on the Indus.

Administration.—The total revenue of Sehwán Sub-District, in 1873-74, amounted to £27,760, of which £23,510 was derived from imperial and £4250 from local sources. The land tax, *abkári* (excise), and stamp duties formed the main items. Two subordinate civil courts, at Sehwán and Kotri. Total number of police, 294, or 1 to every 554 of the population. Number of municipalities, 6, viz. Kotri, Sehwán, Arázi, Bubak, Dádú, and Mánjhand. Aggregate municipal income (1873-74), £2331. Subsidiary jails at Dádú, Sehwán, Mánjhand, and Kotri. Number of Government schools (1873-74), 22, with 972 pupils.

Climate.—Average annual rainfall registered at Sehwán, 6·43 inches; at Kotri, 8·09 inches. Prevalent diseases, fevers and cholera. Hospital at Kotri, dispensary at Sehwán.

Sehwán.—*Táluk* in Sehwán Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Area, 924 square miles; pop. (1872), 54,292; gross revenue (1873-74), £9974.

Sehwán.—Chief town of Sehwán *táluk*, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated in lat. 26° 26′ N., and long. 67° 54′ E., on the main road from Kotri to Shikárpur *viâ* Lárkhána; 84 miles north-north-west of Kotri, and 95 miles south-south-west of Lárkhána; elevation above sea level, 117 feet. The river Aral, which formerly flowed close to the town, has now quite deserted it. A few miles south of Sehwán, the Laki Hills terminate abruptly, forming a characteristic feature of this portion of the Sub-District. Sehwán is the headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and *táppádár*. Pop. (1872), 4296, including 2324 Muhammadans and 1956 Hindus. The Muhammadan inhabitants are for the most part engaged in fishing; the Hindus, in trade. A large section of the people are professional mendicants, supported by the offerings of pilgrims at the shrine of Lál Sháhbáz. The tomb containing the remains of this saint is enclosed in a quadrangular edifice, covered with a dome and lantern, said to have been built in 1356 A.D., and having beautiful encaustic tiles with Arabic inscriptions. Mírzá Jáni, of the Tarkhan dynasty, built a still larger tomb to this saint, which was completed in 1639 A.D. The gate and balustrade are said to have been of hammered silver, the gift of Mír Karam Alí Khán Tálpur, who also crowned the domes with silver spires. The chief object, however, of antiquarian interest in Sehwán is the fort ascribed to Alexander the Great. This is an artificial mound 80 or 90 yards high, measuring round the summit 1500 by 800

feet, and surrounded by a broken wall. The mound is evidently an artificial structure, and the remains of several towers are visible. The fortifications are now in disrepair. The public buildings of Sehwán are the Subordinate Civil Court, a Government Anglo-vernacular school, dispensary, post office, lock-up, Deputy Collector's and travellers' bungalow, and *dharmsála*. The municipal income varies from £300 to £400. The police number 37 men. The transit trade is mainly in wheat and rice; and the local commerce, in cloth and grain. The manufactures comprise carpets, coarse cloth, and pottery. The art of seal-engraving is also practised. Sehwán is undoubtedly a place of great antiquity. Tradition asserts that the town was in existence at the time of the first Muhammadan invasion of Sind by Muhammad Kásim Safiki, about 713 A.D.; and it is believed to be the same place which submitted to his arms after the conquest of Nerankot, the modern Haidarábád.

Sejakpur.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 5 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £532; of which £31 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £11 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Selam.—District and town in Madras.—*See* SALEM.

Selere.—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* SILLER.

Selu (*Sailu*).—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 50′ N., and long. 78° 46′ E., on the Bor river, 11 miles north-east of Wardhá town, and close to the old high-road from Nágpur to Bombay. Pop. (1872), 3184. Selu was an old Gond settlement; but the fort was built by a chief named Kandeli Sardár. It was the scene of a skirmish between Hazárí Bhonslá and the Pindárís. Chief manufacture, cotton cloth; in which, as well as in raw cotton, much business takes place at the market held every Tuesday. The town has a *sarái* (native inn), police outpost, and vernacular school.

Sendamangalam.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—*See* SHENDAMANGALAM.

Sendgarsa.—Peak in the Santál Parganás District, Bengal, overlooking the great central valley of the Rájmahál Hills. Height, about 2000 feet.

Sendúrjana.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar, about 60 miles south-east of Ellichpur town. Pop. (1867), 7032. A very fine well, which was built by a former *jágírdár*, and is said to have cost £2000, is about a mile distant. The principal trade of the large market held on Fridays is in turmeric, cotton, and opium. Municipal revenue, £136. Government school and police outpost.

Senháti.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal, 4 miles north of Khulná; contains the largest collection of houses in the District, and is perhaps the most jungly place in it. Pop. above 2000. The numerous tanks

scattered over the town are filled with weeds and mud; and the roads of the village, with one exception, wind through masses of brushwood. Market-place, called Nimái Rái's *bázár*, with a temple to Kálí; one or two sugar refineries, the produce of which is exported chiefly to Calcutta. On the banks of the river Bhairab are two shrines—one dedicated to Sítalá, goddess of small-pox, and the other to Jwarnáráyan, god of fever.

Sentapilli (*Santapilly*). — Village and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* CHANTAPILLI.

Seodivadúr.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £97; of which £5 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Seonáth (or *Seo*).—River rising in lat. 20° 30′ N., long. 80° 43′ E., in the Pánábáras Chiefship, in Chánda District, Central Provinces. After leaving a hilly tract, it flows through Nándgáon State and the richer parts of Ráipur District; then turning to the east, it forms for some distance the boundary between Ráipur and Biláspur; and finally joins the Mahánadi at Devíghát. Its chief affluents are the Agar, Hámp, Maniári, Arpá, Kárún, and Lílágar.

Seoní (*Seonee*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 36′ and 22° 58′ N. lat., and between 79° 14′ and 80° 19′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Jabalpur, on the east by Mandla and Bálághát, on the south by Nágpur and Bhandára, and on the west by Narsinhpur and Chhindwára. Area, 3606 square miles; population in 1872, 407,330 souls. Recent transfers of territory from Seoní to the lately formed District of Bálághát have considerably reduced the area and population of this District, which are thus returned in the latest Parliamentary Abstract, that for 1879:—Area, 3252 square miles; pop. 299,856. The administrative headquarters are at SEONI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Seoní occupies a portion of the Sátpura tableland, which separates the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), on the north, from the great plain of Nágpur, on the south. The greater part of the District consists of the plateaux of Lakhnádon and Seoní on the north and west, together with the valleys between them; and of the watershed and elevated basin of the Wainganga river on the east. Besides these, a narrow strip of rocky land, known as Dongartál, stretches out in the south-west; while the south-east corner belongs to the Katangí valley. Almost everywhere the District presents the varied scenery of an upland country. Geologically, northern Seoní constitutes a part of the wide field of overflowing trap which occupies the area between the Pachmarhí Hills westward and the Maikal range beyond Mandla to the east. In the south, the formation consists of crystalline rock. Towards the western boundary, the metamorphic

rocks, chiefly gneiss and micaceous schist, form the southern face of the hills which bound the Seoní plateau. Northwards they are lost sight of in the bed of laterite which overlies this part of the plateau, and covers the trap to within a short distance of Seoní town. A few miles east of Seoní, the crystalline rocks again come to the surface; and from this point eastward the valley of the Ságar constitutes the line of demarcation between the crystalline rocks and the trap. The District is hilly throughout, but the physical features of the geological formations present a marked contrast. In the north the trap hills either take the shape of ridges with straight outlines and flattened tops, or, rising more gradually, expand into wide undulating plateaux. The valleys are wide and bare, and contain the rich black soil formed by disintegrated trap, spread over a deep deposit of calcareous clay; while the intersecting streams, as they cut through the clay, expose broad masses of bare black basalt, alternating with marshy and stagnant pools. In the southern portion of the District the hills are more pointed, the valleys more confined, and the soil, even where it is rich, contains a large admixture of sand. Seoní must at one time have abounded with timber. At present the northern hills have much teak, but of an inferior and stunted growth. Along the Wainganga a few patches of young teak are found; and the vast bamboo forest of Sonáwání, in the south-east corner of the District, contains fine *bíje-sál* and *tendú;* while to the north some large *sáj* grows upon the hills. The reserved forests consist of the great firewood reserve for Kámthi and Nágpur, covering 315 square miles; and the reserve in the south for the protection of satin-wood, for which there is considerable demand in the Nágpur arsenal. The chief river of the District is the Wainganga, which rises a few miles east of the Nágpur and Jabalpur road, near the Kurái Ghát; and soon after, turning to the south, forms the boundary between Seoní and Bálághát Districts. Its affluents are the Hirí and Ságar on the right bank; the Thelí, Bijná, and Thánwar on the left. Besides these streams, the Tímar and the Sher flow northwards to the Narbadá; and on the west, the Pench for some distance separates Seoní from Chhindwára. The Nágpur and Jabalpur road crosses the Sher at Sonái Dongrí, where a fine stone bridge spans the river. The general slope of the country is from east to west. The elevation of the Seoní and Lakhnádon plateaux varies from 1800 to 2200 feet above sea level. Iron is found in Juní and Katangí; but no mines are worked in the District.

History.—About the 5th century of our era, a dynasty of conquerors appears to have reigned on the Sátpura tableland. Some grants of territory inscribed on copper plates found in Seoní, an inscription in the Zodiac cave at Ajantá, and a few passages in the *Puránas*, dimly disclose a line of princes sprung from one Vindhyásakti. This mythical hero seems to be the eponymous monarch of

the Vindhyán Hills, in which designation the *Puránas* include the SATPURA range. But the history proper of Seoní only begins with the reign of Rájá Sangrám Sá of Garha-Mandla, who, in 1530, extended his dominion over fifty-two chiefships, three of which—Ghansor, Chaurí, and Dongartál—form the greater part of the present District of Seoní. Nearly two centuries later, Narendra Sá, the Rájá of Mandla, conferred these tracts on Bakht Buland, the famous prince of Deogarh, in acknowledgment of his assistance in suppressing a revolt. Bakht Buland placed his kinsman Rájá Rám Sinh in possession of the Seoní country; and the latter built a fort at Chhapára and established his headquarters in that town. Soon afterwards, Bakht Buland made a progress through the District, and chanced to make the acquaintance of Táj Khán, a Muhammadan adventurer. The bravery of Táj Khán in killing a bear single-handed first attracted the attention and won the favour of the Deogarh monarch; and it was at the instigation, and in the name of Bakht Buland, that Táj Khán attacked and took Sángarhí in Bhandára District. In 1743, Raghojí, the Marhattá Rájá of Nágpur, finally overthrew the dynasty of Deogarh; but Muhammad Khán, who had succeeded his father, Táj Khán, at Sángarhí, refused to recognise the conqueror, and held out against the Marhattás for three years. Admiring his conduct, Raghojí offered him Seoní District if he would give up Sángarhí. Muhammad Khán consented; and repaired to Chhapára, whence he governed Seoní, with the title of Díwán. One serious reverse chequered a fortunate and successful reign when, during the absence of Muhammad Khán at Nágpur, the Rájá of Mandla attacked and captured Chhapára. The square tomb which still stands in the ruined fort covers the large pit in which all those slain in the assault were buried. The Díwán, however, speedily advanced from Nágpur with a large force, and recovered his capital; and the Thánwar and Ganga rivers were again declared to be the boundaries between Seoní and the Mandla kingdom. Majíd Khán, the eldest son of Muhammad Khán, succeeded in 1761; and was followed in 1774 by his son Muhammad Amín Khán, who removed his headquarters to Seoní, where he built the present family residence. After a prosperous reign of twenty-four years, he was succeeded by his eldest son, Muhammad Zamán Khán. The weakness of the new ruler proved disastrous both to the country and the dynasty. Chhapára, which, though no longer the capital, was still a large and flourishing city, with a population, it is said, of 40,000, was sacked and utterly ruined by the Pindárís; and soon afterwards, perceiving the incompetence of the Díwán, and anxious to compensate by fresh acquisitions for their cession of Berar to the British in 1804, the Marhattás ejected Muhammad Zamán Khán. Raghojí then sold the government of the District for £30,000 per annum to Kharak Bhártí, a Gosáin. Eventually, with the downfall of the Nágpur

power, Seoní came under British rule, and since then has remained undisturbed. The District contains but few architectural remains. At Umargarh, Bhainságarh, Partápgarh, and Kanhágarh, all situated on commanding spots along the southern margin of the Sátpuras, stand ruined forts attributed by tradition to the Bundelá Rájás. Of these, the Bhainságarh fort is in the least imperfect condition. Two old Gond forts also remain,—one in the Sonwára forest, near Ashta; the other near Uglí, on a well-nigh inaccessible rock in the bed of the Hirí river. At Ghansor, 20 miles north-east of Seoní town, the ruins of about 40 temples seem to indicate the former existence of a large town. Some of the plinths are still in their place, and are attributed to a caste of Hindus from the Deccan called Hemárpanthís.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Seoní at 421,650. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 407,330. The latest return (1879) shows the population of the re-constituted District to be 299,856. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 407,330 persons on an area of 3606 square miles, residing in 1661 villages or townships and 79,043 houses. Persons per square mile, 113; villages per square mile, 0·46; houses per square mile, 21·92; persons per village, 245·23; persons per house, 5·15. Classified according to sex—males, 205,496; females, 201,834. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 89,605, the female children, 84,197. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 15; Eurasian, 1; aboriginal tribes, 157,903; Hindus, 252,978; Muhammadans, 15,408; Buddhists and Jains, 1070. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds (148,183 in 1872), the remainder consisting of Kurkus, Bharias, etc. Among the Hindus in 1872, Bráhmans numbered 6361, the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Dhers or Mhars (40,207), Ponwars (30,305), Ahírs or Gaulís (26,907), Malis or Marals (24,873), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 40. The Ponwars supply the most industrious and enterprising agriculturists. Their appearance in Seoní dates rather more than a century back, their first settlements being about Sangarhi and Partápgarh, whence they ultimately spread into Katangi. The Ahírs or Gaulís are a pastoral tribe, who have occupied the fine grazing ground to be found in most parts of the District, and especially the rocky strip of Dongartál in the south-west. The Muhammadans were probably more numerous when the line of Muhammad Khán governed the District. The diminution of the population between 1866 and 1872 may be explained by the emigration of agriculturists, especially Ponwárs, to the lately formed District of Bálághát. Still more recently, the transfer of territory from Seoní to Bálághát has, according to the latest Parliamentary Return of 1879, reduced the

population of Seoní District to 299,856 and the area to 3252 square miles. The details given above, however, though only historically correct, still serve to indicate the composition of the people inhabiting the District. The prevailing languages in Seoní are Hindi and Urdu.

Division into Town and Country.—No town in Seoní District has a population exceeding 5000, with the exception of Seoní, the District capital—population in 1872, 9557. Townships of from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 21; from 200 to 1000, 675; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 964. SEONI, the only municipality, had in 1876-77 an estimated population within municipal limits of 8042. The municipal income amounted to £1127, of which £991 was derived from taxation, being 2s. 5d. per head; total expenditure, £1081.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3252 square miles, only 931 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 753 are returned as cultivable. 18,451 acres of rice land in the Katangi valley are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 6½d. per acre of the cultivated area, or 3½d. on the cultivable area. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, and is grown year after year on the rich black soil of the plateaux in the north and west. In 1876, it occupied 261,042 acres; while 193,751 acres were devoted to other food grains. The rice land of the District lies in the south. In 1876, rice was grown on 101,282 acres. Other products were—sugar-cane, 1058; cotton, 9336; fibres, 2888 acres. The *kása* grass, which yields an oil like the *cajepát*, and the *baherá* (Terminalia bellerica), *harrá* (Terminalia chebula), and *manjít* (Rubia munjeesta), plants which supply valuable dyes, abound in the District. The average out-turn per acre in 1876 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 490 lbs.; inferior grain, 384 lbs.; rice, 480 lbs.; sugar (*gúr*), 760 lbs.; cotton, 34 lbs.; fibres, 1098 lbs. The rocky tract called Dongartál, in the south-west, contains some excellent grazing ground, and its breed of cattle is famous. The stock of cows, bullocks, and buffaloes amounted in 1876 to 248,406 head. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 2961 proprietors, of whom 463 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 55,954, of whom 16,673 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 39,281 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre in 1876 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 2s. 6d.; inferior grains, 1s. 6d.; rice or cotton, 2s. 2d.; sugar-cane, 4s. 3d.; fibres, 3s. 6d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 3s. 8d.; rice, 6s. 10d.; sugar (*gúr*), 17s. 9d.; cotton, 43s. 8d. Wages per diem averaged, for skilled labour, 1s. 3d.; for unskilled labour, 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of markets in the towns. The most important are those held

at Lálbará, Wárá, Seoní, and Píparwáni, to which the grain of the rice-producing tract in the south is brought for export to Nágpur and Kámthi (Kamptee). Kohká also, between Wárá Seoní and Píparwáni, has a large salt market. Only two annual fairs take place in the District. The imports and exports are both insignificant, but the through traffic between Nágpur and Bhandára and the north causes some degree of business. The manufactures consist of coarse cloth, and some pottery of superior quality made at Kánhíwára. At Khawása, in the midst of the forest, leather is beautifully tanned. In 1876, the District possessed 90 miles of made roads. The chief line of communication is the high-road from Nágpur to Jabalpur, which enters the District near Khawása, and, passing by Seoní, crosses the border into Jabalpur District near Dhúmá. It has travellers' bungalows at Kurái, Chhapára, and Dhuma. A District road with American platform bridges runs from Seoní through Katangi, to join the Great Eastern Road. The other lines consist of mere bullock tracks, leading to various points in Bálághát and Nágpur Districts. Seoní has no means of communication by water.

Administration.—In 1861, Seoní was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £25,567, of which the land-tax yielded £15,170. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £7588. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 5; magistrates, 5. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 45 miles; average distance, 24 miles. Number of police, 315, costing £4369, being 1 policeman to about every 10 square miles and to every 960 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 115, of whom 6 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £711. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 45, attended by 1754 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The plateaux enjoy a moderate and healthy climate. The average temperature in the shade at the civil station in 1876 is returned as follows:—May, highest reading 110° F., lowest 72° F.; July, highest 97° F., lowest 68° F.; December, highest 84° F., lowest 42° F. In that year, the rainfall did not exceed 45 inches. The average fall is 51·46 inches. The prevailing disease is fever, which proves most dangerous during the months succeeding the rains. In 1876, two charitable dispensaries, at Seoní and Lakhnádon, afforded medical relief to 14,036 in-door and out-door patients. The death-rate reached the high figure of 30·5 per thousand; the mean for the previous five years is returned at 18.

Seoní.—South-western *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Seoní District, Central

Provinces, lying between 21° 33′ and 22° 27′ N. lat., and between 79° 27′ and 80° 6′ E. long. Area, 1384 square miles; pop. (1872), 160,542, residing in 606 villages or townships and 31,377 houses.

Seoní.—Principal town and administrative headquarters of Seoní District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 5′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 35′ E., on the road from Nágpur to Jabalpur, nearly half-way between the two places. Pop. (1872), 9557. Founded in 1774 by Muhammad Amín Khán, who made it his headquarters instead of Chhapára. Seoní contains large public gardens, a fine market-place, and a handsome tank. Principal buildings—court-house, jail, school (which is well attended), dispensary, and post office. The climate is healthy, and the temperature moderate.

Seoní.—Central *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Area, 633 square miles; pop. (1872), 52,377, residing in 144 villages or townships and 11,400 houses.

Seoní.—Town in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 28′ N., and long. 77° 29′ E., on the high-road to Bombay. Pop. (1872), 7579. Of the town on this site in the time of Akbar, no remains exist. The present town dates from the conquest of the country by Raghojí Bhonslá about 1750, when a fort was built where an Amíl resided. A detachment of British troops from Hoshangábád took the fort in 1818. Seoní is perhaps the chief mercantile town in the whole Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, being the entrepôt from which the cotton of Bhopál and Narsinhpur, as well as of Hoshangábád, is exported to Bombay. Grain is the other export. Imports—English cotton fabrics, spices, and metals. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway has a station at Seoní, and a *sarái* (native inn) has been built.

Seoníband.—Artificial lake in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° N., and long. 80° 2′ E., 8 miles north-west of the Nawegáon tank; about 8 miles in circumference; average depth, 30 feet; length of embankment, 630 feet. Constructed before 1550 by Dádú Patel Kohrí, whose family held Seoní village for about 250 years. In the time of Raghojí I., the village was granted to Báká Báí, whose descendants still own it.

Seopur (*Sheopur*).—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 25° 39′ N., and long. 76° 41′ 15″ E., near the western boundary of the State. According to Thornton, it was formerly the capital of a small Rájput principality, but in the early part of the present century was subjugated by the forces of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. 'In 1816, when garrisoned by Sindhia's general, Baptiste, with 200 men, it was surprised and taken by escalade by the celebrated Rájput chief Jái Sinh, who had only 60 men. The captor seized a large amount of treasure, and made the family of Baptiste prisoners.'

Seoráj.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; forming part

of the Kullu Subdivision, and lying between 31° 20′ 30″ and 31° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 77° 14′ and 77° 43′ E. long. Area, 575 square miles. This tract occupies the wild block of land between the Sainj and the Sutlej (Satlaj). The Jalori or Suket range, an offshoot of the Mid-Himálayan system, divides it into two portions, known as Outer and Inner Seoráj. The greater part of the surface is covered by forests of *deodar* and other trees; but the river valleys present frequent patches of careful cultivation, interspersed with picturesque villages of wooden houses, closely resembling Swiss *châlets.*

Seorí Náráyan.—Eastern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1415 square miles; pop. (1872), 186,983, residing in 712 villages or townships and 43,529 houses.

Seorí Náráyan.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 43′ N., and long. 82° 39′ E., 36 miles east of Bilášpur town, on the Mahánadi river. Estimated pop. (1872), 1500. The temple to Náráyan (whence the name) appears, from an inscription on a tablet, to have been built about 841 A.D. It has no architectural merit. The town was once a favourite residence of the Ratanpur Court. In the rains, the Mahánadi at this point forms a fine river, navigable for large boats from Sambalpur; and even at other times, its channel retains a considerable depth of water. An important fair is held every February.

Seota.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 32 miles east of Sítápur town, between the Chauka and Gogra rivers. Founded by Alha, a Chandel Thákur, a *protégé* of Rájá Jái Chánd of Kanauj, who granted to Alha possession of all the surrounding tract, known as Gánjar. The town contains a school, the ruins of a mosque, and an old *tálukdár's* fort. Good *bázárs*, and annual fair. Pop. (1869), 3428.

Sera.—Ancient name for the Southern Division of Dravida, the present Madras Presidency.—*See* CHERA and KERALA.

Serampur (*Srírámpur*).—Subdivision of Húglí District, Bengal; lying between 22° 39′ and 22° 55′ N. lat., and between 88° and 88° 27′ E. long. Area, 349 square miles; villages, 803; houses, 86,793; pop. (1872), 393,864; persons per square mile, 1129; villages per square mile, 2·30; persons per village, 490; houses per square mile, 249; persons per house, 4·5. This Subdivision comprises the 5 police circles of Serampur, Baidyabátí, Haripál, Krishnanagar, and Chanditalá.

Serampur (*Srírámpur*).—Headquarters of Serampur Subdivision, Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Húglí river, opposite Barrackpur, in lat. 22° 45′ 26″ N., and long. 88° 23′ 10″ E.; pop. (1872), 24,440. The municipality includes several neighbouring hamlets; total municipal revenue (1871), £3687, 4s.; rate of taxation, 3s. per head of population; 41 metalled and 36 unmetalled roads run through

the town. Serampur was formerly a Danish settlement, and remained so until 1845, when all the Danish possessions in India were ceded by treaty to the East India Company on payment of £125,000. Station on the East Indian Railway, 13 miles distant from Calcutta (Howrah station). Serampur is historically famous as the scene of the labours of the Baptist missionaries, Carey, Marshman, and Ward; the mission still flourishes, and its founders have established a church, school, college, and noble library in connection with it; there is also a dispensary here. *The Friend of India*, a weekly paper published at Serampur, once rendered this town conspicuous in the history of Indian journalism. Chief manufactures, paper and mats.

Seringapatam (*Srírángapatnam*).—The old capital of the State of Mysore; situated on an island of the same name in the Káveri (Cauvery), 75 miles south-east by road from Bangalore, and 10 miles north-east from Mysore city. Lat. 12° 25′ 33″ N., long. 76° 43′ 8″ E. Population (1871), including the suburb of GANJAM, 10,594, consisting of 8805 Hindus, 1639 Muhammadans, 12 Jains, and 138 Christians; males, 5173; females, 5421. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £1048; rate of taxation, 2s. per head.

History.—The name is derived from Srí Ranga, one of the forms of the god Vishnu, who is worshipped by the same title on two other islands lower down the Káveri, SIVASAMUDRAM and SRIRANGAM; but his temple here takes first rank of the three, as Adi Ranga. Local legend relates that Gautama Buddha himself worshipped at this shrine. According to a Tamil MS., preserved in the Mackenzie collection, the site had become overgrown with jungle, and the temple was rebuilt in 894 A.D., during the reign of the last Chera or Kongu sovereign. In 1133, the Vishnuvite apostle Rámánuja received a grant of the island, with the surrounding country, from a king of the Ballála dynasty. The fort is said to have been founded in 1454 by a descendant of one of the local officers or *hebbars* appointed by Rámánuja. Seringapatam first appears in authentic history as the capital of the viceroys of the distant Hindu emperors of Vijayanagar, who took the title of Srí-ranga-ráyal. Tirumala, the last of these viceroys, surrendered in 1610 to Rájá Wodeyar, the representative of the rising house of MYSORE. Henceforth Seringapatam remained the seat of Government until the downfall of Tipú Sultán in 1799.

The existing fortifications were almost entirely constructed by Tipú, who thrice sustained a siege from British armies. In 1791, Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, commanding in person, advanced up to the walls, but was compelled to retire through want of provisions. In the following year, he won a decisive victory in the field, and had invested the city on all sides, when Tipú purchased peace by the cession of half his dominions. Finally, in 1799, the fort was stormed

by General Harris, and Tipú fell in the breach. The siege was begun in April of that year with a powerful battering train, and the assault was delivered after a bombardment of nearly one month's duration. The spot selected for breaching was in the wall facing the Káveri, for the defences were weakest on that side, and the river was at that season of the year easily fordable. After the capture, the island of Seringapatam was ceded to the British Government, whose property it still remains, being leased to the State of Mysore for an annual rent of £5000. The residence of the restored Hindu Rájá was removed to Mysore city, and Seringapatam immediately fell into decay. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who visited the place in 1800, returned the population at 31,895 souls, as compared with 150,000 when Tipú Sultán was at the height of his power. An outbreak of epidemic fever accompanied this depopulation; and in 1811, the British military headquarters were removed to BANGALORE. At the present day, the ruins of Seringapatam are almost deserted; and the place bears such a bad name for malaria, that no European traveller dare sleep on the island. The natives attribute this change of climate to the destruction of the sweet flag, a plant to which they assign extraordinary virtue as a febrifuge. The suburb of GANJAM, said to have been colonized by Tipú with the deported inhabitants of SIRA, is a fairly prosperous place, with manufactures of cotton cloth and paper, and crowded fairs held three times in the year.

General Description.—The island of Seringapatam is about 3 miles in length from east to west, and 1 mile in breadth. The fort stands at its upper or western end, immediately overhanging the river. The plan is that of an irregular pentagon, with an extreme diameter of 1½ mile. The defences, which were laid out by Tipú himself, are imposing for their massiveness, though not constructed on scientific principles. They consist of wall piled upon wall, and cavalier behind cavalier, the chief characteristic being the deep ditches cut through the solid granite. The whole remains in almost precisely the same condition as it was left after the siege, even to the breaches, except that a luxuriant growth of trees has been allowed to spring up. The spot where the English batteries were planted is now marked by two cannons stuck upright in the ground. Inside the fort are the ruins of Tipú's palace, now partly occupied as a storehouse for sandal-wood; the old temple of Ranga-nátha-swámi; the Jamá Masjíd, a tall mosque with two minarets, built by Tipú shortly before his death; and a few traces of the palace of the early Hindu rulers. Just outside the walls is the Dariya Daulat Bágh, or 'garden of the wealth of the sea,' a building of graceful proportions, handsomely decorated with arabesque work in rich colours. It was erected by Tipú for a summer retreat, and contains the celebrated pictures representing the defeat

of Baillie at CONJEVARAM in 1780, which, after being twice defaced, were finally restored by the express orders of Lord Dalhousie when Governor-General. At the eastern or lower end of the island, near the suburb of Ganjám, is the Lál Bágh or 'red garden,' containing the mausoleum built by Tipú Sultán for his father Haidar Alí, in which he himself lies, by his father's side. This is a square building, with dome and minarets, surrounded by a corridor which is supported by pillars of black hornblende. The double doors, inlaid with ivory, were the gift of Lord Dalhousie. The inscription on the tombstone of Tipú relates how he died a martyr to Islám, and at the same time indicates by the initial letters the date of his death. Each of the two tombs is covered with a crimson pall, and the expenses of the place are defrayed by Government. The island of Seringapatam yields valuable crops of rice and sugar-cane, which are watered from a canal originally constructed by Tipú, and brought across from the mainland by an aqueduct.

Seringham.—Famous temple in Trichinopoli District, Madras.—*See* SRIRANGAM.

Sesháchalam.—Hill range in Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras; an offshoot of the Pálkonda Hills, skirting the east and north-east of the District. Lat. 14° 12′ to 14° 35′ N., long. 78° 1′ 30″ to 78° 56′ E. The hills are uniform in appearance, and rise from 1200 to 1800 feet above the level of the sea. There are no isolated peaks. The Sesháchalam Hills strike off in a westerly direction from the Pálkonda range at a point about 15 miles south of the Penner (Ponnaiyár) river. In some parts they are clothed with rich forests, and the scenery is very beautiful.—*See also* PALKONDA.

Settúr.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras.—*See* SATUR.

Seven Pagodas.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras.—*See* MAHABALIPUR.

Severi (*Seberi*).—River in Central India.—*See* SABARI.

Sewán.—Subdivision of Sáran District, Bengal. Area, 1293 square miles; villages, 2122; houses, 130,263; pop. (1872), 894,409, viz. 767,396 Hindus, 126,953 Musálmans, 53 Christians, and 7 'others.' Number of inhabitants per square mile, 672; villages per square mile, 1·64; persons per village, 421; houses per square mile, 101; inmates per house, 7; proportion of males in total population, 49·7 per cent. This Subdivision consists of the 4 police circles of Sewán, Daraulí, Barágáon, and Baraulí. It contained in 1869, 7 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 160 men, and 2836 village watchmen; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £7193, 6s.

Sewán.—Town in Sáran District, Bengal.—*See* ALIGANJ SEWAN.

Sewán.—Town in Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 42′ N., long. 76′ 25″ E.; pop. (1868), 6206, consisting of 2587 Hindus, 2526

Muhammadans, and 1093 'others.' Distant from Kaithal 14 miles north.

Sewáni.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4053, chiefly Muhammadan Rájputs, many of whom enjoy the title of Ráo. Thriving and prosperous town, said to have escaped unhurt from the periodical famines which ravage the dry surrounding tract. Distant from Hissár town 21 miles south.

Shabkadar (*Shankargarh*).—Town and fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab, and headquarters of the Doába-Dáúdzái *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 34° 10′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 33′ E., about 3 miles from the foot of the western hills, and 17 miles north-east of Pesháwar city. Flourishing agricultural community, with several Hindu traders. The fort, also known as Shankargarh, stands about a mile north-east of the village. It was built by the Síkhs, and is now strongly fortified, and held by a detachment from Pesháwar.

Sháhábád.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 31′ and 25° 43′ N. lat., and between 83° 23′ and 84° 55′ E. long. Area, 4385 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,723,974. Sháhábád forms the south-western portion of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Gházípur in the North-Western Provinces, and the Bengal District of Sáran; on the east by Patná and Gayá Districts; on the south by Lohárdagá; and on the west by the Districts of Mírzápur, Benares, and Gházípur, in the North-Western Provinces. On the north and east, the boundary is marked by the Ganges and Son rivers, which unite in the north-eastern corner of the District. Similarly, the Karamnása forms the boundary with the North-Western Provinces on the west, from its source to its junction with the Ganges near Chausá; and the Son is the boundary with Lohárdagá on the south. The administrative headquarters are at the town of ARRAH.

Physical Aspects. — Sháhábád naturally divides into two distinct regions, differing in climate, scenery, and productions. The northern portion, comprising about three-fourths of the whole area, presents the ordinary flat appearance common to the valley of the Ganges in the Province of Behar; but it has a barer aspect than the trans-Gangetic Districts of Sáran and Tirhut. This tract is entirely under cultivation, and is dotted over with clumps of trees—mangoes, *mahua*, bamboos, palms, etc. The southern portion of the District is occupied by the Káimur Hills, a branch of the great Vindhyán range. The area of these hills situated within Sháhábád District amounts to 799 square miles. The boundaries of the hills, though well defined, are very irregular, and often indented by deep gorges scoured out by the hill streams. The edges are generally very precipitous, and huge masses of rocks which have fallen from the top obstruct in many

places the river channels below. The summit of the hills consists of a series of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, with a deposit of rich vegetable mould in the centre, on which the finest crops are produced. There are several *ghâts* or ascents to the top, some of which are practicable for beasts of burden. Two of the most frequented of these passes are Sarkí and Khariyarí—the first near the south-western boundary, the second in a deep gorge north of Rohtás. Two passes on the north side are more accessible,—one, known as the Khulá *ghát*, is 2 miles south of Sásserám; the other is at Chhanpathar, at the extreme west of the District, where the Karamnása forms a waterfall. The slopes to the south are covered with bamboo, while those on the north are overgrown with a mixed growth of stunted jungle. The general height of the plateau is 1500 feet above the level of the sea. The SON and the GANGES may be called the chief rivers of Sháhábád, although neither of them anywhere crosses the boundary. The District occupies the angle formed by the junction of these two rivers, and is watered by several minor streams, all of which rise among the Káimur Hills and flow north towards the Ganges. The most noteworthy of these are the following:—The Karamnása, the accursed stream of Hindu mythology, rises on the eastern ridge of the Káimur plateau, and flows north-west, crossing into Mírzápur District near Kulhuá. After a course of 15 miles in that District, it again touches Sháhábád, which it separates from Benares; finally it falls into the Ganges near Chausá. The Dhobá or Káo rises on the plateau, and flowing north, forms a fine waterfall, and enters the plains at the Tarrachándí Pass, 2 miles south-east of Sásserám. Here it bifurcates—one branch, the Kudra, turning to the west, and ultimately joining the Karamnása; while the other, preserving the name of Káo, flows north and falls into the Ganges near Gáighát. The Dargáutí rises on the southern ridge of the plateau, and after flowing north for 9 miles, rushes over a precipice 300 feet high, into the deep glen of Kadhar Kho; eventually it joins the Karamnása, passing on its way the stalactite caves of Gupta and the hill-fortress of Shergarh. This river contains water all the year round; and during the rains, boats of 1½ ton burthen can sail up stream 50 or 60 miles from its mouth. The chief tributaries of the Dargáutí are the Súrá, Korá, Gonhuá and Kudra. In the hilly southern portion of the District, large game abounds. Tigers, bears, and leopards are common; five or six varieties of deer are found; and among the other animals met with are the wild boar, jackal, hyæna, and fox. The *nílgái* (blue cow), the Antelope picta of naturalists, is seen on the Káimur tableland. Of game birds, the barred-headed goose (Anser indicus) is common. The black-backed goose (Sarkidornis melanotus) and the grey goose (A. cinereus) are also to be found. The former is very rare in Lower Bengal, and the latter is seldom seen south of Central

India, though it is a common visitor in the north. The other game birds of the District include many varieties of wild duck (the most remarkable being the sheldrake), several kinds of teal, partridges, curlews, and pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, snipe, and golden and common plovers.

The Son Canals.—The project of irrigating Sháhábád District by a comprehensive scheme of canals, which should also be navigable, dates from 1855, when Colonel Dickens proposed the construction of canals from Patná westwards to Chunár, a project subsequently extended to Monghyr in the one direction and to Mírzápur in the other. It was, however, finally decided in 1871 that the original scheme should not be extended, and it is still an open question whether the Main Western Canal shall be extended even as far as Chunár. The work was commenced in 1869 by the construction of an anicut or weir at Dehrí-on-Son, about half a mile south of the causeway which carries the Grand Trunk Road from Bárún to Dehrí. This weir is 12,500 feet long by 120 broad, and 8 feet above the normal level of the river bed. It constitutes the headwork of the system. The Main Western Canal, starting from here, has to carry up to the fifth mile, where the ARRAH CANAL branches off in a north-westerly direction, 4511 cubic feet of water per second, to irrigate 1,200,000 acres, only 600,000 of which require simultaneous irrigation. The Arrah Canal takes off 1616 cubic feet of water per second, which leaves 2895 cubic feet up to the 12th mile, where the BAXAR and CHAUSA CANALS branch off in a northerly direction, abstracting a further quantity of 1260 cubic feet per second. In aligning the Main Western Canal, the great object was to escape a heavy cutting 30 feet deep at Dehrí, and carry the water along the ridges of the country. It curves round in a northerly direction to the head-works of the Arrah Canal, then bends to the west, crossing the Káo by means of a siphon aqueduct at Bihiyá, and finally stops on the Grand Trunk Road 2 miles west of Sásserám. The distance from Dehrí to this point is 21½ miles. The length of the Arrah Canal is 60 miles, from Dehrí to the point where it enters the Gangí *nadi*, by which it communicates (a farther distance of 10 miles) with the Ganges. With its two branches, the BIHIYA and DUMRAON CANALS, the Arrah Canal commands an area of 441,500 acres. The Bihiyá Canal, 30½ miles long, has 7 distributaries; and the Dumráon branch, 40½ miles long, has 12. The Arrah Canal has, in addition to these two branches, 4 principal distributaries. The total length of the Baxár and Chausá branches is 85 miles, and they command with their distributaries the country between the Káo and the Dunáutí on the west, a tract which greatly needs irrigation. As a rule, the canals run in such a way that they do not cross the natural drainage channels of the country; but where this is not so, siphons have been provided which allow the water to pass under the canal unhindered. Many of the works being still

incomplete, it is not possible to give at present a trustworthy estimate of the total cost of the work. There can be little doubt that these canals have conferred upon Sháhábád entire immunity from future famines. As far as the Son readings have gone, they show that a minimum supply of 3000 cubic feet of water per second can be depended upon up to the 15th of January; and this would suffice to irrigate 480,000 acres. But many of the cold-weather crops will have been completely irrigated before this date, so that the amount of water required decreases equally with the volume of the stream. Thus peas, which occupy a very large area, generally receive their last watering about Christmas, when the supply is 3500 cubic feet per second. Generally speaking, three waterings are required for the cold-weather crops—one early in November, one in December, and one in the middle of January. After February, the supply of water decreases very rapidly; and though in exceptional years of high flood, irrigation might be carried on up to March and April for sugar-cane and indigo, these crops can only be occasionally watered or drenched in an ordinary year.

Population.—Sháhábád was one of the Districts statistically surveyed in the beginning of the present century by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who made the area 4087 square miles, and the population 1,419,520. According to a later estimate, based upon the Survey of 1844-46, the area was returned at 4404 square miles, and the population at 1,602,274. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,723,974 persons, living in 5110 villages and 275,041 houses; density of the population, 393 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·16; houses per square mile, 63; persons per village, 337; persons per house, 6·3. The *thánás* or police circles along the Ganges are the most densely populated, having from 600 to 700 persons to the square mile. South of these comes a row of *thánás* with a population of between 400 and 500 to the square mile; and further south, the population becomes yet thinner, till in the *tháná* of Sásserám, which is over 1000 square miles in extent, the density is only 169 to the square mile; this *thánά* contains much hilly, uncultivated land. Classified according to sex, there are in Sháhábád 835,374 males and 888,600 females; proportion of males in total population, 48·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—males, 312,717, and females, 273,276; above 12 years—males, 522,657, and females, 615,324. The excessive proportion of male over female children is due to the fact that here, as elsewhere in India, natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood, and many girls are thus returned as women. The ethnical division of the people is as follows:—Non-Asiatics (mostly British), 257; mixed races (Eurasians), 137; Asiatics, other than natives of India (Armenians), 9; natives of India, 1,723,571. Aboriginal tribes are

represented principally by the Bhars or Rájbhars, of whom there are 5679, and the Karwárs, who number 5673. The Bhars claim to be Purihar Rájputs, and at one time occupied a large part of the District. They are now almost entirely confined to the Baxár Subdivision, and are one of the most degraded races, most of them being swine-herds. Among the low castes or semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous are the Chamárs, shoemakers and workers in leather, of whom there are 91,777; and the Dosádhs (77,927), many of whom serve as village watchmen. Of the higher classes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 198,631, and Rájputs, 185,652. The most numerous caste in Sháhábád is that of the Goálás or cow-herds, of whom there are 214,605, or 12·4 per cent. of the total population. The Koerís, the chief cultivating caste of the District, number 130,394. The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number altogether 1,590,643, or 92·2 per cent. of the total population. The followers of Islám are 132,671 in number, or 7·6 per cent. of the population—a smaller proportion than in any other District of Behar. The number of Christians in the District is 461, of whom 58 are natives. Eight municipalities contain a population of upwards of 5000, viz.—ARRAH, 39,386; SASSERAM, 21,023; DUMRAON, 17,356; BAXAR, 13,446; JAGDISPUR, 9400; BHOJPUR, 7004; NASRIGANJ, 5732; and BHABUA, 5071,—all of which see separately. Many of these are not really towns, but merely municipal aggregations of rural villages. They have a total population of 118,418, leaving 1,605,556 as forming the strictly rural population. Fifty-nine towns have a population of between 2000 and 5000; 227 contain from 1000 to 2000 inhabitants; 2128 have from 200 to 1000; and 2687 villages have fewer than 200. The principal place of interest in the District, from an antiquarian point of view, is the fort of Rohtás or ROHTASGARH, so called from Prince Rohitáswa, son of Harischandra, one of the kings of the Solar dynasty. The present buildings were erected by Mán Sinh, soon after he was appointed Viceroy of Bengal and Behar in 1644. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the Káimur tableland, measuring about 4 miles from east to west, and 5 miles from north to south. Other places of interest in Sháhábád are the ruins of Shergarh fort, named after Sher Sháh, its founder; Chainpur fort, with several interesting monuments and tombs; Darautí and Baidyanáth, with ruins attributed to the Suars or Sivirás; Masár, the Mo-ho-so-lo of Hiouen Thsang; Chausá, the scene of the defeat of Humáyun in 1539 by Sher Sháh; Tilothu, near which are a fine waterfall and a very ancient Cheru image; and Pataná, once the capital of a Hindu Rájá of the Suar tribe. A description of these places will be found under their respective names. The sacred cave of Guptasar lies in the centre of the Káimur plateau, 7 miles from Shergarh.

The town of Arrah is invested with a special historical interest, as being the scene of a stirring episode in the Mutiny of 1857. A body of rebels, consisting of about 2000 Sepoys from Dinápur and four times as many armed villagers, under Kuár Sinh, marched in the end of July on Arrah. They reached the town on the 27th of that month, and forthwith released all the prisoners in the jail, and plundered the treasury. The European women and children had already been sent away, but there remained in the town about a dozen Englishmen, official and non-official, and three or four other Christians of different races. The Commissioner of Patná, Mr. Tayler, had supplied a garrison of 50 Síkhs. This small force held out for a long eight days, until rescued by Major Vincent Eyre. The centre of defence had been wisely chosen. At this time the East Indian Railway was in course of construction, under the local superintendence of Mr. Vicars Boyle, who, fortunately, had some knowledge of fortification. He occupied two houses, now known as the Judge's houses, the smaller of which, a two-storied building about 20 yards from the main house, was forthwith fortified and provisioned. The lower windows, etc. were built up, and sand-bags ranged on the roof. When the news came that the mutineers were streaming along the Arrah road, the Europeans and Síkhs retired to the smaller house. The rebels, after pillaging the town, made straight for Mr. Boyle's little fortress. A volley dispersed them, and forced them to seek the shelter of the larger house, only a few yards off, whence they carried on an almost continuous fire. They attempted to burn or smoke out the little garrison, and tried various other safe modes of attack, but they had no guns. Kuár Sinh, however, produced two small cannon which he had dug up, and artillery missiles were improvised out of the house furniture. In the small house there was no thought of surrender. Mr. Herwald Wake, the Magistrate, put himself in command of the Síkhs, who, though sorely tempted by their countrymen among the mutineers, remained faithful throughout the siege. A relieving party of 150 European troops, sent by water from Dinápur, fell into an ambuscade on landing in Sháhábád; and as time passed away and no help arrived, provisions and water began to run short. A bold midnight sally resulted in the capture of 4 sheep, and water was obtained by digging a well 18 feet deep inside the house. A mine of the enemy was met by countermining. On the 2nd August, the besieged party observed an unusual excitement in the neighbourhood. The fire of the enemy had slackened, and but few of them were visible. The sound of a distant cannonade was heard. Before sunset the siege was at an end, and on the following morning the gallant garrison welcomed their deliverers—Major Vincent Eyre with 150 men of the 5th Fusiliers, a few mounted volunteers, and 3 guns with 34 artillerymen. Major Eyre

had dispersed Kuár Sinh's forces on his way to Arrah, and they never rallied.

Agriculture.—The chief staple of Sháhábád is rice, of which three principal crops are grown, namely—the *bhadaí* or early crop, which is sown in July or August, and ripens in about sixty days; the *báwag*, sown broadcast in June or July, and reaped in November and December; and the *ropá* or winter crop, which is also sown in June and July, and reaped in December and January. Besides these, a very limited area is planted with *boro* rice, sown in November and cut in April. Many varieties of each rice crop are named. The other crops of the District include—wheat, barley, maize, and other cereals; gram, peas, lentils, and several other green crops; *tíl*, linseed, castor-oil, and mustard; many kinds of vegetables; cotton, hemp and jute, poppy, sugar-cane, betel-leaf, tobacco, safflower, indigo, etc. Roughly speaking, it may be estimated that of the total area (2,808,400 acres) of the District, 2,200,000 acres are under cultivation. The area usually covered by autumn (*bhadaí*) and winter (*aghaní*) food crops is about 1,500,000 acres; that occupied by spring or *rabí* food crops, 600,000 acres; and that under other than food staples, 100,000 acres. The area under poppy is about 22,000 acres (average out-turn, 27½ lbs. of opium per acre); that under tobacco, only 300 acres. Wages and prices are reported to have risen, but the figures for early years are not available. The Government irrigation scheme already described has considerably raised the price of labour; and masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths, who before the opening of the canal works earned from 4½d. to 6d. a day, now make from 6d. to 9d. The rates of rent in 1872 were—for early rice land, on which an after-crop of pulses, vegetables, oil-seeds, etc. is grown, 1s. 7d. to 15s. 10d. an acre; for late rice land, generally a single crop, 3s. 2d. to 15s. 10d. an acre; other food grains, such as wheat, peas, etc., and linseed, 2s. 4½d. to £1, 11s. 8d. an acre.

Natural Calamities.—Sháhábád is subject to blight, flood, and drought. Blights, although they occasionally cause considerable damage, never occur on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. The Ganges annually overflows its banks; but the principal inundations result from the rising of the Son on the elevated plateau of Central India. Destructive floods have only occurred during the last few years, since a portion of the high land that formerly protected the District was washed away. About one-sixth of the total area is subject to inundation. Droughts arising from deficient rainfall, and the want of an extensive and complete system of irrigation, frequently caused distress previous to the opening of the canal works described above; and four times in the course of five years—in 1865, 1866, 1867, and 1869—drought seriously affected the harvest. The Son Canals have now, as has been stated, secured for the District immunity from future famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets in the towns, and at fairs. The most frequented of these fairs are held at Barhampur near Raghunáthpur railway station, Baxár, Zakhaní, Dhusariyá, Padamanián, Gadahní, Kastar Danwar, 'Dhamár, Masárh, and Guptasar. The principal exports are—rice, wheat, barley, pulses, gram, oats, linseed, carraway-seed, paper, and spices; the chief imports—cleaned rice, betel-nut, tobacco, sugar, molasses, salt, pepper, cotton, iron, brass, zinc, copper, lead, tin, and betel-leaf or *pán*. The two great highways of trade to and from the District are the Ganges and the East Indian Railway. The railway runs through the District for a distance of 60 miles, from Koelwár station on the Son to Chausá on the Karamnássa, the intermediate stations being Arrah, Bihíyá, Raghunáthpur, Dumráon, and Baxár. The aggregate length of roads in the District in 1876, exclusive of village tracks, was 957 miles, maintained at a total cost of £3610, of which £2062 was derived from imperial and the remainder from local funds. There is a road cess of 1 per cent. on the land revenue of the District. The principal manufactures of Sháhábád are sugar, paper, saltpetre, blankets, coarse cotton cloth, and brass utensils. There are 58 sugar refineries (of which 42 are at Nasríganj), and the amount manufactured in 1872-73 was 965 tons, valued at £28,350. Paper is made at Sáhár and Haríharganj, both on the Son; and blankets and carpets in the Sásserám and Bhabuá Subdivisions.

Administration.—So far as can now be ascertained, it would appear that the net revenue of Sháhábád increased from £101,851 in 1790-91 to £167,277 in 1849-50, and to £233,978 in 1870-71; while the net expenditure, in like manner, increased from £5627 in 1790-91 to £25,046 in 1849-50, and to £44,158 in 1870-71. The revenue in 1877-78 was £208,504; and the civil expenditure, £33,387. The land tax forms the principal item of revenue here, as elsewhere in Bengal; and the amount collected increased from £97,508 in 1790 to £176,273 in 1877-78. The number of estates has just doubled in the same time, being 2330 in 1790, and 4669 in 1871; but the number of proprietors has increased to a much greater extent, namely, from 1289 in 1790 to 21,177 in 1870-71. In the former year, the average amount paid by each proprietor was £80, 14s., and in the latter year, £8. For police purposes, the District is divided into 11 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 515 officers and men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £9750. There was also a municipal police of 264 officers and men, costing £1689, and a rural police or village watch of 6185 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £9539. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 6964 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·63 square mile of the area or to every

247 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £20,979, equal to an average of £4, 15s. 8d. per square mile of area and nearly 3d. per head of population. The number of criminal cases conducted by the police in 1872 was 4368; percentage of final convictions, 46·87. The District has 4 jails, which contained in 1872 an average daily number of 411 prisoners. The number of Government and aided schools in Sháhábád in 1856-57 was 8, with 354 pupils; in 1870-71, there were only 13 such schools, attended by 589 pupils. Since the latter year, however, owing to the encouragement of primary education by an extension of the grant-in-aid system, the number of Government and aided schools has largely increased. In 1871-72, there were 47 schools, with 1572 pupils; and in 1872-73, there were 207, with 4173 scholars. The number of aided schools in 1877-78 was 282, attended by 7211 pupils. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 4 Subdivisions; and for fiscal purposes, into 13 *parganás*.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sháhábád is fairly healthy. The prevailing endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, bowel complaints, and skin diseases. Cholera and small-pox occur from time to time in an epidemic form.

Sháhábád.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Hardoi District, Oudh, lying between 27° 24′ and 27° 47′ N. lat., and between 79° 43′ and 80° 21′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces, on the east by Muhamdi *tahsíl*, on the south by Hardoi *tahsíl*, and on the west by Farrukhábád District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 539 square miles, of which 310 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 212,289, namely, 187,121 Hindus and 25,168 Muhammadans; males, 115,138, and females, 97,151; average density of population, 393 per square mile. This Subdivision comprises the 8 *parganás* of Sháhábád, Alamnagar, Piháni, Mansurnagar, Sárá (North), Saromannagar, Páli, and Pachhoha.

Sháhábád.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Alamnagar and Sárá, the Sukheta river forming the boundary line; on the south by Saromannagar; and on the west by Pachhoha and Páli, from which it is separated by the Garra river. Area, 131 square miles, of which 81 are cultivated. Chief products — wheat, barley, *bájra*, gram, *joár*, rice, *arhar*, and sugar-cane. At the time of the revenue survey, wheat occupied about one-third of the cultivated area; barley and *bájra* each about a tenth; and gram, *joár*, and rice together about a fourth. Pop. (1869), 67,646, namely, 56,187 Hindus and 11,459 Muhammadans. Of the 143 villages comprising the *parganá*, 72 are held by Muhammadans, 25½ by Bráhmans, 21½ by Kshattriyas, 9 by Káyasths, 1 by Gosáins, 1 by Europeans, and 13 by

the Government. The varieties of tenure are—*tálukdári*, 26 villages; *zamíndári*, 82; and *pattidári*, 35. Government land revenue, £9342, equal to an average of 3s. 7½d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 2¾d. per acre of total area. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs through the *parganá*, with a station near Sháhábád town. The country was originally in the hands of the Thatheras, whose chief settlement seems to have been at and around Angni Khera, on the site of Sháhábád town. They are said to have been dispossessed in the 8th century A.D. by a band of Bráhmans, who were on a pilgrimage from Benares to Hardwár. The Bráhmans retained possession of Angni Khera and the surrounding country till the reign of Aurangzeb, when, having plundered a convoy of treasure on its way to Delhi, a retaliatory expedition was sent out under an Afghán chief, Diler Khán, who surprised the Bráhmans at a bathing festival, slew them, and took possession of their lands, which were confirmed to them by the Delhi Emperor. Diler Khán founded the town of Sháhábád on the old site of Angni Khera, which he filled with his Afghán kinsmen and troops, assigning them jungle grants in the neighbourhood. Diler Khán's family gradually extended their possessions, acquiring, either by purchase, mortgage, fraud, or force, every village in the *parganá*, which they held as proprietors till some fifty or sixty years ago, when the family began to decay and the estate to fall to pieces. The old proprietors in some cases succeeded in recovering possession of their villages, mostly by purchase from the Nawáb's family. The descendants of Diler Khán, however, still hold possession of more than one-half of the *parganá*.

Sháhábád.—Town in Hardoi District, and headquarters of Sháhábád *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated on the road from Lucknow to Sháhjahánpur, 15 miles from the latter town, in lat. 27° 38′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 59′ 5″ E. The most populous town in the District, and the fourth largest in the Province. Pop. (1869) 18,254, including 10,741 Hindus and 7540 Muhammadans, residing in 985 masonry and 3668 mud-built houses. The town is divided into several wards or *mahallas*, named for the most part after the followers and companions in arms of the founder, Diler Khán. It has declined in importance during the past hundred years, the inhabitants dating the decay from the decline of the Delhi Empire, and the rise of Oudh to independence. The present population is said to be only one-third of what it was formerly. Tieffenthaler describes Sháhábád, about 1770 A.D., as 'of considerable circuit, and nearly in the middle is a palace of brick strengthened with towers like a fortress (the Bari Deorhi constructed by Diler Khán), with a vestibule and spacious covered colonnade. Most of the houses are of brick, and there is a fine mosque built of the same material, and enclosed by a wall. The town extends a mile from north

to south, its breadth is something less, but of its flourishing state little remains.' When visited by Tennant in 1799, it was an expanse of ruins, 'that appeared in the form of hills, and broken, crumbling to dust.' Heber found it in 1824 'a considerable town, or almost city, with the remains of fortifications and many large houses.' Sháhábád is connected with Sháhjahánpur, Páli, Sándi, Hardoi, and Piháni by unmetalled roads; it is also a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The Subdivisional courts and police station are placed in the enclosure of the Jamá Masjíd, a mosque built by Diler Khán. Anglo-vernacular school, dispensary, and *sarái* (travellers' rest-house). No trade or manufacture of importance. Several markets are held in the different wards.

The following account of Sháhábád in 1850 is quoted from Sir W. Sleeman's *Tour through Oudh*, vol. ii. pp. 46-47; it is interesting as giving the origin of the chronic ill-feeling that exists between the Muhammadans and Hindus — which broke out into a riot at the *Muharram* festival of 1868:—'Sháhábád is a very ancient and large town, occupied chiefly by Pathán Musalmáns, who are a very turbulent and fanatical set of fellows. Subsukh Rái, a Hindu, and the most respectable merchant in the District, resided here, and for some time consented to officiate as the deputy of poor old Háfiz Abdullá for the management of the town, where his influence was great. He had lent a good deal of money to the heads of some of the Pathán families of the town; but finding few of them disposed to repay, he was last year obliged to refuse further loans. They determined to take advantage of the coming *Muharram* festival to revenge the affront, as men commonly do who live among such a fanatical community. The *tazias* are commonly taken up and carried in procession ten days after the new moon is first seen at any place where they are made; but in Oudh, all go by the day in which the moon is seen from the capital of Lucknow. As soon as she is seen at Lucknow, the king issues an order throughout his dominions for the *tazias* to be taken in procession ten days after. The moon was this year, in November, first seen on the 30th of the month at Lucknow; but at Sháhábád, where the sky is generally clearer, she had been seen on the 29th. The men to whom Subsukh Rái had refused further loans determined to take advantage of this incident to wreak their vengeance; and when the deputy promulgated the king's order for the *tazias* to be taken in procession ten days after the 30th, they instigated all the Muhammadans of the town to insist upon taking them out ten days after the 29th, and persuaded them that the order had been fabricated or altered by the malice of their Hindu deputy to insult their religious feelings. They were taken out accordingly; and having to pass the house of Subsukh Rái, when their excitement or spirit of religious fervour had reached the

highest pitch, they there put them down, broke open the doors, entered in a crowd, and plundered it of all the property they could find, amounting to about 70,000 rupees. Subsukh Rái was obliged to get out with his family at a back door, and run for his life. He went to Sháhjahánpur, in our territory, and put himself under the protection of the Magistrate. Not content with all this, they built a small miniature mosque at the door with some loose bricks, so that no one could go either out or in without the risk of knocking it down, or so injuring this mock mosque as to rouse, or enable the evil-minded to rouse, the whole Muhammadan population against the offender. Poor Subsukh Rái has been utterly ruined, and ever since seeking in vain for redress. The Government is neither disposed nor able to afford it, and the poor boy who has now succeeded his learned father in the contract is helpless. The little mock mosque of uncemented bricks still stands as a monument of the insolence of the Muhammadan population, and the weakness and apathy of the Oudh Government.'

Sháhábád.—Municipal town in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 10′ N., long. 76° 55′ E.; pop. (1868), 11,678, consisting of 4125 Hindus, 6520 Muhammadans, 1028 Síkhs, and 5 Christians. Founded by one of the followers of Alá-ud-dín Ghori about 1086 A.D. Well built of brick, and ornamented by several handsome mansions of Síkh *sardárs.* Important Síkh family, descended from Karm Sinh, immigrated hither in 1759. Government resumed half the estate on failure of heirs in 1863; the remainder passed to two cousins, representatives of another branch of the family. Inhabitants principally engaged in agriculture; no manufactures; local grain trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £261, or 5¼d. per head of population (11,653) within municipal limits.

Sháhábád.—Town in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab. Lat. 33° 32′ N., long. 75° 16′ E. Thornton states that it was a favourite residence of the early Mughal Emperors, but now suffered to fall into decay. Stands in the midst of a fruitful and picturesque valley, famous for producing the finest wheat in Kashmír. *Bázár*, with a few shops. Elevation above sea level, 5600 feet.

Sháhábázár.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 6268.

Sháháda.—Chief town of the Sháháda Subdivision, Khándesh District, Bombay; situated 48 miles north-west of Dhulia. Together with Kukdel, it contained in 1872 a population of 5212. It is a municipal town, with an average income of about £248. Post office.

Sháhápur.—Town in Sángli, one of the Southern Marhattá States, Bombay. Lat. 15° 50′ 5″ N., long. 74° 33′ 56″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,265.

Sháhbandar.—Sub-District of Karáchi District, Sind, lying between 23° 35′ and 25° N. lat., and between 67° 20′ and 68° 48′ E. long.

Area, 3378 square miles; pop. (1872), 103,887, but allowing for recent transfers, 102,936, including 90,349 Muhammadans and 12,575 Hindus.

Sháhbandar consists mainly of a flat, alluvial plain, forming part of the delta of the Indus, ánd cut up by numerous creeks, the chief of which are the Kori channel (which is believed to have been formerly a mouth of the Eastern Nárá), and the Pinyári or Sír river. Large tracts in this Division are covered with mangrove and tamarisk jungle. The south-western portion is annually inundated, and the belt bordering the sea affords excellent grazing ground for large herds of buffaloes. Number of canals in Sháhbandar, 152, with an aggregate length of about 800 miles. There are 13 Government forests, with an area of 38,287 acres. Game and fish abound. The principal crops of the Sub-District are rice, occupying 76 per cent. of the total cultivated area, and *bájra*, 13 per cent. The average yield per acre of cleaned rice on good land is about 560 lbs. Wheat, cotton, tobacco, and sugar-cane are also grown. The area of land held in *jágír*, or revenue-free, is estimated at 45,000 acres. The annual value of the imports, which are principally cloth, grain, drugs, oil, *ghí*, sugar, tobacco, pepper, betel-nut, and copper and brass vessels, is estimated at about £35,000; and the exports, mainly agricultural produce, at £70,000. The manufactures comprise salt, coarse blankets, and leathern and iron goods. Thirteen fairs. Aggregate length of roads, 350 miles; number of ferries, 34.

In 1873-74, the total revenue of Sháhbandar Sub-District amounted to £34,530, of which £30,562 was derived from imperial and £3968 from local sources. The chief items are the land tax, *abkári* or excise, and stamp duties. Total number of police, 160. Subordinate civil court at Mirpur Batoro. There are 8 municipal towns, viz. Mirpur Batoro, Mugalbhin (Mogul Bim), Sháhbandar, Sujáwal, Bano, Chuhan Jamáli, Daro, and Gungáni. Subordinate jails at Mirpur Batoro, Belo, Mugalbhin, and Sháhbandar. Number of Government schools, 3, with a total of 109 pupils. Prevalent diseases, intermittent fevers. Dispensary at Mirpur Batoro.

Sháhbandar. — *Táluk* of the Sháhbandar Sub-District, Karáchi District, Sind. Area, 699 square miles; pop. (1872), 21,046. Gross revenue (1873-74), £9385.

Sháhbandar (*King's Port*).—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name in Sháhbandar Sub-District, Karáchi, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 10′ N., and long. 67° 56′ E., in the delta of the Indus, 30 miles south-west of Mugalbhin, and 33 miles south of Sujáwál. Pop. (1872), 1203, including 469 Muhammadans and 732 Hindus. Sháhbandar stood formerly on the east bank of the Malir, one of the mouths of the Indus, but it is at present 10 miles distant from the nearest point of

the river. The great salt waste commences about a mile to the south-east of the town, and on its westward side are extensive jungles of long *bin* grass. It was to Sháhbandar that the English factory was removed from Aurangábád when this latter place was deserted by the Indus; and previous to the abandonment of the factory in 1775, it supported an establishment of 14 vessels for the navigation of the river. The disastrous flood which occurred about 1819 caused material changes in the lower part of the Indus, and hastened the decay of Sháhbandar, which is now an insignificant village. Carless states that the native rulers of Sind had a fleet of 15 ships stationed here. Vessels entered by the Richal, the only accessible mouth, and passing into the Hajámro through what is now the Khedewári creek, ascended that stream to about 10 miles above Ghorebári, where it joined the Malir. Sháhbandar is the headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and of a *táppádár;* police *thána* or circle, with a force of 13 men. Municipal revenue (1874), £109.

Sháhdádpur. — *Táluk* of the Hála Sub-District, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind. Area, 765 square miles; pop. (1872), 55,707. Gross revenue (1873-74), £10,868.

Sháhdádpur.—Chief town of Sháhdádpur *táluk*, Haidarábád District, Sind; situated in lat. 25° 56′ N., and long. 68° 40′ E., on the Jámwah Canal, 15 miles north-east of Hála, and 40 miles north-east of Haidarábád city. Pop. (1872), 2232, including 756 Muhammadans and 1250 Hindus. Seat of a subordinate judge's court, and of a *múkhtiárkár's* office, with the usual public buildings. Local trade in grain, oil-seeds, sugar, and cloth, valued at £6000; transit trade in *bájra*, wheat, rice, and cotton, valued at about £10,000. Chief manufacture, oil. Sháhdádpur is said to have been founded two centuries ago by one Mír Sháhdád.

Sháh Dheri.—Village and ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Sháhdra.—Village in Lahore District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4370. Stands in lat. 31° 40′ N., and long. 74° 20′ E., on the west bank of the Rávi, nearly opposite Lahore city. Contains the mausoleum of Jahángír and his wife Núr Ján, and the tomb of Asaf Khán, brother of the empress, in a beautiful garden, a favourite resort of the residents of Lahore. The Síkhs committed great depredations upon all the buildings, carrying off much of the marble facings and enamelled work to decorate their own temple at Amritsar (Umritsur). Sháhdra is at present occupied by a large colony of Europeans in connection with the works of the Punjab Northern State Railway.

Sháhdwára. — Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 7257, consisting of 5683 Hindus and 1574 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 28° 40′ 5″ N., and long. 77° 20′ 10″ E.,

near the left bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, about 31 miles south-west of Meerut city. Founded by the Emperor Sháh Jahán, who gave it its present name of 'Royal Gate,' and designed it as an emporium for the supply of grain to his troops. Sacked by Suráj Mall Ját, of Bhartpur, and plundered by the soldiers of Ahmad Sháh Duráni just before the battle of Pánipat. Manufacture of sweetmeats. Large trade in shoes and leather; considerable sugar refineries. Police station, post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £583; from taxes, £262, or 8⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sháhganj.—Town in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 3′ 30″ N., long. 82° 41′ 30″ E.

Sháhganj (or *Mukimpur*).—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated about 10 miles from Faizábád town. Founded by a Mughal on the village land of Mukimpur; seized by Rájá Darshan Sinh, whose fort and residence became celebrated during the Mutiny of 1857. Pop. (1869), 3744, consisting of 3077 Hindus and 667 Muhammadans. Mosque, 2 temples, and vernacular school.

Sháhgarh.—Chief town of a tract bearing the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 19′ N., and long. 79° E., 40 miles north-east of Ságar town. Originally part of the Gond kingdom of Mándla, it continued till 1857 to be the headquarters of an independent chief of ancient lineage. (*See* SAGAR DISTRICT.) Sháhgarh stands at the foot of a lofty hill range, with jungle on nearly every side. The small fort, now in ruins, on the east of the village, contained the Rájá's palace. At the villages of Báretá, Amarmau, Hírápúr, and Tigorá, all in the north of the tract, iron-ore is smelted and sent to Cawnpore. Markets are held every Tuesday and Saturday; and Sháhgarh has a Government boys' school, girls' school, and dispensary.

Sháhi.—Canal in the Punjab.—*See* HASLI.

Sháhjahánpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 35′ and 28° 28′ 15″ N. lat., and between 79° 23′ and 80° 25′ 45″ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78, 1744 square miles; population (according to the same authority), 949,471 souls. Sháhjahánpur forms the easternmost District of the Rohilkhand Division. It is bounded on the north by Bareilly (Bareli), on the east by the Oudh Districts of Hardoi and Kheri, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Budáun and Bareilly (Bareli). The administrative headquarters are at the city of SHAHJAHANPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sháhjahánpur consists of a long and narrow tract, running upward from the Ganges towards the Himálayas, nearly at right angles to the river system of the Rohilkhand plain. Hence its natural features depend almost entirely upon the various streams which have cut themselves deep channels

through the alluvial soil of the Gangetic basin. The north-eastern corner, beyond the Gumti, presents an appearance not unlike that of the *tarái* or damp submontane belt. A large area still remains under forest, or lies otherwise waste. A scanty population inhabits this unhealthy and malarious tract; but water rises close to the surface, and the natural fertility of the soil is only marred by the feverish exhalations. The next section, between the Gumti and the Khanaut, passes from a rather wild and unhealthy northern region to a densely inhabited strip along the southern river, consisting of a productive loam, well cultivated with sugar-cane and other remunerative crops. The Khanaut falls into the Deoha just below Sháhjahánpur; and the triangle enclosed between the confluent streams, though fertile in the immediate neighbourhood of their valleys, consists of a thinly peopled country, much overgrown with thorn and *dhák* jungle. The section between the Deoha and the Garái comprises much marshy land; but south of the latter river, the country rises in a sandy ridge, till it reaches the valley of the Rámganga, through which the stream wanders in changing courses, destroying and re-forming its banks with great rapidity. Thence to the Ganges stretches a continuous lowland, consisting of marshy patches, alternating with a stiff clay soil, and requiring irrigation in parts. Cultivation is here less easy and less remunerative. The Rámganga forms the main waterway of the District, being navigable as far as Kola Ghát, near Jalálábád, whence considerable quantities of cereals and pulses are shipped in country boats by Cawnpore traders for the Ganges ports. A few swampy lakes (*jhíls*) in the lower portions of the District afford irrigation for the spring crops in their neighbourhood. No large pasture grounds exist anywhere, but cattle are sent in large herds from the northern *parganás* to graze in Nepál during the cold weather, returning again at the commencement of the rains.

History.—Sháhjahánpur possesses little separate history of its own before the annexation by the British in 1801. During the early Musalmán times, it always formed part of Kather proper, nearly the whole of its *parganás* lying east of the Rámganga; and it was then included under the government of Budáun. Sháhjahánpur town was founded in the reign of Sháh Jahán by Nawáb Bahádur Khán, a Pathán, who named it in honour of the Emperor. About 1720, Alí Muhammad Khán, who had risen into power at the head of his Rohillá clansmen, defeated the Governors of Bareilly (Bareli) and Morádábád, and himself assumed the rule of those two Districts, together with Sháhjahánpur. On his death in 1751, Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the guardian of his sons, became leader of the Rohillás, and defeated the imperial troops sent against him. Sháhjahánpur remained under the Bareilly authorities till 1774, when the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh overran Rohilkhand with

the aid of Warren Hastings. The Rohillás, however, had never gained complete control over the eastern portion of Sháhjahánpur District, though their power was firmly established in the west. The Gaur or Kathariya Thákurs also retained their independence among the wild wastes of the north. Sháhjahánpur, indeed, lying on the border between Oudh and Rohilkhand, formed a sort of debateable land between the two Provinces; but the sympathies and connections of the Sháhjahánpur Patháns lay always with Oudh rather than with the Rohillás. The Nawáb Wazírs held Rohilkhand from 1774 till 1801, when it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Lál Dháng.

Thenceforward, our rule was never disturbed until the Mutiny, although the District bordered upon the most turbulent part of Oudh. In 1857, however, Sháhjahánpur became the scene of open rebellion. The news of the Meerut (Mírath) outbreak arrived on the 15th of May; but all remained quiet till the 25th, when the sepoys informed their officers that the mob intended to plunder the treasury. Precautions were taken against such an attempt; but on the 31st, while most of the officers, civil and military, were at church, some of the sepoys forced their way into the building and attacked them. Three Europeans were shot down at once; the remainder closed the doors, and aided by their servants, together with a hundred faithful sepoys, held the church against the mutineers. The other officers then joined them, and the whole party escaped, first to Pawáyan, and afterwards to Muhamdi. The mutineers burnt the station, plundered the treasury, and made their way to the centre of local disaffection at Bareilly. A rebel Government, under Kádir Alí Khán, was proclaimed on the 1st of June. On the 18th, Ghulám Kádir Khán, the hereditary Nawáb of Sháhjahánpur, passed through on his way to Bareilly, where he was appointed Názim of Sháhjahánpur by Khán Bahádur Khán. On the 23rd, the Nawáb returned to his titular post, and superseded Kádir Alí. He remained in power from June 1857 till January 1858, when our troops took Fatehgarh. The Nawáb of Fatehgarh and Firoz Sháh then fled to Sháhjahánpur, and on to Bareilly. After the fall of Lucknow, the Nána Sáhib also fled to Sháhjahánpur, but remained only ten days, and proceeded onward to Bareilly. In January, the Nawáb put to death Hámid Hassan Khán, Deputy Collector, and Muhammad Hassan, subordinate judge, for corresponding with the English. On the 30th of April 1858, the British force under Lord Clyde reached Sháhjahánpur. The rebels fled to Muhamdi, and the British went on to Bareilly on the 2nd of May, leaving only a small detachment to guard the station. The rebels then assembled once more, and besieged our troops for nine days; but Brigadier Jones' column relieved them on the 12th, and authority was then finally re-established.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total number of

inhabitants at 986,096 persons. That of 1865 showed an increase to the number of 1,018,117, being a gain of 32,021 persons, or 3·2 per cent. The Census of 1872 gave the population as 949,579, showing an apparent decrease of 68,538 persons, or 7·2 per cent., since 1865; and of 36,517 persons, or 3·8 per cent., in the whole nineteen years. These results, however, are very fallacious when compared with the area, which increased by 20 square miles in the first twelve years, and decreased by 605 square miles, or 35·1 per cent., in the last seven years, owing to the transfer of Puranpur *parganá* to Bareilly District. The real rate of increase may best be seen from the figures representing the density of population, which amounted to 427 persons per square mile in 1853, to 437 in 1865, and to 551 in 1872. But here again it must be borne in mind that the *parganá* transferred to Bareilly, lying close to the foot of the Himálayas in the pestilential *tarái*, had a much sparser population than any other portion of the District. Although the area of the District is returned in the Administration Report for 1877-78 at 1744 square miles and the population at 949,471, the Census of 1872 was taken as extending over an area of 1723 square miles, and disclosed a population of 949,579, distributed among 2180 villages or townships, and inhabiting 188,958 houses. From these data the following averages, taken from the Census Report, may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 551; villages per square mile, 1·3; houses per square mile, 109; persons per village, 436; persons per house, 5. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics) — males, 511,136; females, 438,235: proportion of males, 54·1 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the same omission), under 12 years—males, 176,662; females, 155,118; total children, 331,780, or 35·99 per cent. of the whole native population: above 12 years—males, 334,474; females, 283,217; total adults, 617,691, or 64·01 per cent. of the whole native population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 822,576, or 86·6 per cent., and the Muhammadans 126,599, or 13·4 per cent. The District also contained 296 Christians. As regards ethnical and caste distinctions, Bráhmans numbered 63,120; Rájputs, 69,222; Banias, 14,600; Ahírs, 65,232; Chamárs, 109,448; Káyasths, 12,323; and Kurmís, 28,248. Among the Muhammadans, 13,773 ranked as Shaikhs, 3325 Sayyids, 1167 Mughals, and 41,564 Patháns. In the central portion of the District, the people are well off, and inhabit a richly cultivated plain, scarcely inferior to that of the Doáb. In the extreme north, however, agriculture is backward, waste tracts are numerous, and the people are poor and miserable, like their neighbours in the *tarái*. In the south, also, where the swampy tract between the Rámganga and the Ganges alternates with stretches of stiff clay, the condition of the agricultural classes is much less prosperous. The

District contains 7 towns with a population exceeding 5000, namely—SHAHJAHANPUR, 72,140; PAWAYAN, 6109; TILHAR, 5317; HINDU-PATTI, 6009; JALALABAD, 7129; MIRANPUR KATRA, 6529; and KANT, 5006. Most of these towns are of quite modern origin, dating back no more than 200 years, while all the older cities have fallen into utter ruin.

Agriculture.—The course of tillage follows the ordinary rule of the North-Western Provinces, consisting of the *kharíf* or autumn harvest—chief staples, cotton, rice, *bájra*, and *joár;* and the *rabí* or spring harvest, including wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and peas. Sugar-cane is grown in the low-lying lands, and Indian corn on ground capable of bearing two crops a year. Manure is employed where obtainable, but the poverty of the cultivators seldom permits them to let their land lie fallow. The land tenures belong to the standard types of the Province. The country, however, has been too recently occupied to have acquired such complicated holdings or undergone such minute subdivision as in the Lower Doáb. The horned cattle of the District are small and weak, so that good draught oxen can only be obtained by importation from beyond the Ganges. Government has made several attempts to improve the breed, but the natives show no disposition to avail themselves of the facilities offered to them. Neither wages nor prices have exhibited much tendency to rise of late years; but whatever change has taken place has been in favour of the labouring classes. Smiths received 4½d. per diem in 1852, and 6d. in 1872; labourers obtained 2¼d. at the former date, and 3d. at the latter. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Sháhjahánpur suffers from drought and famine, though its proximity to the hills sometimes saves it from the worst extremities to which neighbouring Districts are exposed. The great famine of 1783-84, though severely felt in Rohilkhand, did not press so heavily upon this Division as upon Agra and the south-west. In 1803-04, two years after the cession, rain completely failed for the autumn crops. In 1825-26, drought again occurred, but did not bring about famine in the strictest sense. In 1837-38, the autumn rains failed, but a slight fall in February saved the harvest in part, though great dearth of grain ensued. The famine of 1860-61 was severely felt throughout Rohilkhand, and Sháhjahánpur suffered like its neighbours, though it escaped the extreme misery which fell upon the contiguous District of Budáun.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway is the main channel for the commerce of Sháhjahánpur. It enters the District near Kahilia, and leaves it near Fatehganj, after a course

of 28 miles within its limits. There are stations at Kahilia, Rosa Junction, Sháhjahánpur, Tilhar, and Miranpur Katra. Three metalled roads also form great arteries of traffic, namely, that from Pawáyan through Sháhjahánpur to Jalálábád; from Lucknow to Bareilly *viâ* Sháhjahánpur and Tilhar; and from Fatehgarh through Jalálábád to Miranpur Katra. Cereals and pulses are carried down the Rámganga by Cawnpore traders, who send their boats to Kolaghát, near Jalálábád. Grain and raw sugar are conveyed on the Deoha from Sháhjahánpur. Some through traffic exists from Pilibhít, where boats are built and despatched down stream, laden with produce. A considerable quantity of timber is also floated down from Pilibhít. Sugar, the chief export of the District, formerly went by cart to Agra and other trans-Jumna marts, salt and cotton being imported in return; but most of this traffic now finds an outlet by the railway, which also conveys the cotton from Chandausi, the chief market for that staple in Rohilkhand. European goods and metals form the main items of import trade. The principal manufacture under European superintendence is that of sugar, started thirty years ago at the Rosa factory, near Sháhjahánpur, by Messrs. Carew & Co. The factory was destroyed during the Mutiny, but was restored, and has been continued ever since. The annual value of the out-turn amounts to about £60,000; and the concern employs 4 Europeans, 1000 labourers, and 5000 carts. Rum is also distilled and sold to the Commissariat Department to a large amount.

Administration.—Sháhjahánpur is the seat of a Civil and Sessions Judge, whose civil jurisdiction extends over the whole District, and includes also the four eastern *parganás* of Budáun. He holds criminal sessions at Budáun town alternately with the Judge of Bareilly. The District staff comprises a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, and an uncovenanted Deputy Magistrate, besides a sub-deputy opium agent, and the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The total amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised in the District in 1876 amounted to £191,508, or 3s. 10¾d. per head of the population. Of this sum, the land tax contributed £118,442. In the year 1875, the regular police force consisted of 672 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 3·16 square miles and to every 1412 of the population; the total cost was £7991, or £3, 8s. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. The District jail at Sháhjahánpur contained during the same year a daily average of 332 prisoners, of whom 12 were females. The average cost per head amounted to £3, 7s. 5¾d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to 8s. Postal communication is carried on by 9 imperial and 10 local post offices; and the telegraph is in operation at all the stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The educa-

tional returns in 1875 showed a total of 202 schools, with a roll of 6218 pupils; being at the rate of 1 school to every 8·52 square miles, and 6·5 pupils to every thousand of the population. Thirteen of these were girls' schools. The total expenditure on education was returned at £4136, of which £1631 was provided from the Provincial treasury and £2505 from local sources. Government maintains 5 *tahsíli* schools, with a roll of 5184 pupils, at an average cost of 12s. 2d. per head. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls* and 12 *parganás*. It contained in 1875-76 two municipalities, SHAHJAHANPUR and TILHAR, with an aggregate revenue of £8507; from taxes, £6665, or 1s. 4¼d. per head of the population (98,312) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sháhjahánpur is much damper than that of the Upper Doáb, and somewhat more so than the other portions of the Rohilkhand plain. Six weeks seldom pass at any time of the year without a fall of rain; and the prevailing wind sets easterly from the cloudy summits of the Himálayas. The heat during the hot months does not equal that of the neighbouring Districts, and warm winds seldom blow for more than five or six days in each year. Except in May and June, the country has a fresh and green aspect, very unlike the parched brown stretches of the Doáb. The average rainfall for the ten years ending 1873 amounted to 37 inches, the maximum during that period being 54·5 inches in 1867, and the minimum 18·3 inches in 1868. Except in the extreme north, near the *tarái*, the climate generally is healthy; but fever and ague prevail in that portion of the District every spring and autumn. The valley of the Sot is also very malarious. The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 23,844, or 25·11 per thousand of the population. The District contains 5 medical dispensaries—at Sháhjahánpur, Katra, Gularia, Jalálábád, and Tilhar. In 1875, they afforded relief to 19,002 persons, of whom 936 were in-door patients.

Sháhjahánpur. — South-eastern *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 401 square miles, of which 286 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 279,083; land revenue, £29,073; total Government revenue, £31,980; rental paid by cultivators, £52,375.

Sháhjahánpur.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 72,140, including 34,511 Hindus and 37,538 Muhammadans. Lies in lat. 27° 52′ 55″ N., and long. 79° 56′ 50″ E.; on the left bank of the river Deoha, crowning the high ground just above its junction with the Khanaut. An old fort overhangs the confluence; and a large masonry bridge, built by Hakím Mehndi Alí, spans the smaller river. The city was founded during the reign of Sháh Jahán by Nawáb Bahádur Khán, a Pathán. Scene of an outbreak during the Mutiny of 1857 (see

SHAHJAHANPUR DISTRICT). Considerable export of cereals, pulses, and sugar. Large out-turn of sugar and rum from the Rosa factory, near the city, the property of Messrs. Carew & Co. Several stately old mosques, now somewhat out of repair. Municipal revenue, in 1875-76, £7118; from taxes, £5707, or 1s. 5¼d. per head of population (79,487) within municipal limits.

Shah-ki-dherí.—Village and ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. —*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Sháhlimar. — Gardens and pleasure-ground in Lahore District, Punjab; situated in the village of Bághampur, 5 miles east of Lahore city. Lat. 31° 35′ N., long. 74° 23′ E. Laid out by Alí Mardan Khán, the celebrated engineer of Sháh Jahán, in imitation of the garden planned by Jahángír at the sources of the Jhelum (Jhílam), in Kashmír (Cashmere). The buildings fell into ruin during the latter period of the Mughal Empire, but were restored by Ranjít Sinh, who substituted stucco for the original marble of the central pavilion.

Sháhpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 32′ and 32° 42′ N. lat., and between 71° 37′ and 73° 21′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 4700 square miles; population (1868), 368,796 souls. Sháhpur forms the southernmost District of the Ráwal Pindi Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Jhelum (Jhílam), on the east by Gujrát and the river Chenáb, on the south by Jhang, and on the west and north-west by Derá Ismáil Khán and Bannu (Bunnoo). The administrative headquarters are at the small town of SHAHPUR on the Jhelum river, but BHERA is the largest place in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sháhpur consists of an irregular block of country, artificially demarcated for administrative purposes, and stretching from the western bank of the Chenáb, across the valley of the Jhelum, far into the heart of the Sind Ságar Doáb, and up to the centre of the Salt Range. On either side of the Jhelum, which divides the District into two nearly equal portions, lie wide upland plains, utterly barren or covered only with low brushwood. Nearly 90 per cent. of the area still remains untouched by the hand of man. But although so large a portion of the surface consists of native desert, considerable variety exists in the aspect of the country. Beginning from the south-eastern border, the first well-marked natural tract comprises the lowlands of the Chenáb, where percolation from the river spreads fertility over a long belt about 10 or 12 miles in width, along the whole of its course. Above these fruitful and well-watered levels, the *bár* or central tableland of the Jetch Doáb stretches in a monotonous undulating waste of desert or jungle to the valley of the Jhelum. The soil of this upland is naturally good; but the impossibility of obtaining water precludes all hope of cultivation, except in a

few hollow basins, where the crops depend upon the capricious rainfall for their whole supply. Numerous herds of cattle, however, roam at will over the prairie jungles, and obtain abundant pasturage from the luxuriant carpet of grass which covers the surface after the rains. A second zone of cultivation fringes either bank of the Jhelum, though not extending so far inland as on the Chenáb. The lowland strips on both sides of the Jetch Doáb are popularly divided into the *hethar*, or alluvial tract immediately bordering the river, and the *nakka*, or slope just beyond the range of percolation. The former contains the most prosperous villages, and is covered throughout its entire length by one unbroken sheet of grain for the *rabí* or spring harvest, without the necessity for artificial irrigation; the latter depends upon the water supply from wells, and has smaller and more straggling villages, scattered at wide distances from one another. Beyond the Jhelum valley rises a second tableland, the *thal* of the Sind Ságar Doáb, a far more forbidding and desert expanse than the *bár*. Northward, a hard level plain, impregnated in places with salt, and almost devoid of vegetation, stretches away monotonously to the foot of the Salt Range. To the east and south, a sandy plateau runs onward till it merges in the utter desert of Derá Ismáil Khán. The extreme southern portion resembles an angry sea of sand, tossed into wave-like hillocks, between which lie undulating troughs of short coarse grass. The north is occupied by a part of the Salt Range, which runs right across the Doáb, and rises to its greatest height in Mount Sakeswar, 5000 feet above sea level. It consists of two divergent chains, which unite again at either end, and enclose a number of rock-bound alluvial basins, interspersed with picturesque lakes. Little patches of rich cultivation are found amid the nooks and valleys of the range, rendered fruitful by the fresh alluvial *detritus* from the surrounding peaks, and watered by the comparatively abundant rainfall of the hill tract. The southern face of the range presents a bold mass of broken and rugged cliffs, whose distorted strata and huge detached rocks give an air of great sublimity to the scenery. Many torrents flow through the gorges on its side, and spread fertility over a narrow strip of lowland at the base, known as the *mohár*. Thence an intermediate belt of pasture land, the *danda*, leads on imperceptibly to the wild sandy waste of the *thal*. Tigers, leopards, and wolves frequent the Salt Range, while small game and antelope abound among the thick jungle of the *bár*.

History.—Though little definite information can be recovered with regard to the annals of Sháhpur District prior to the decline of the Mughal dynasty, the numerous remains studded about the *bár* clearly prove that at some remote period the whole country between the Chenáb and the Jhelum consisted of a flourishing and well-watered

agricultural plain. Mounds of earth, covered with fragments of brick or pottery, lie scattered over the whole tableland, and mark the ancient sites of towns and villages in a tract now only inhabited by half-savage pastoral tribes. The historians of Alexander speak of the country as 'teeming with population;' and local tradition affirms that so late as the time of Akbar, great prosperity extended over the entire *bár.* The present desert condition of the plateau may perhaps be referred to a gradual depression of the water level. But the dawn of authentic history in Sháhpur extends no further back than the reign of Muhammad Sháh, when Rájá Salámat Rái, a Rájput of the Anand tribe, administered Bhera and the surrounding country; while Khusháb was managed by Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, and the south-eastern tract along the Chenáb formed part of the territories under the charge of Mahárájá Kaura Mall, Governor of Múltán. At the same time, the *thal* was included among the dominions of the Baluch families of DERA GHAZI KHAN and DERA ISMAIL KHAN. During the anarchic period which succeeded the disruption of the Mughal Empire, even this remote region became the scene of Síkh and Afghán incursions. In the year 1757, a force under Núr-ud-dín Bamizái, despatched by Ahmad Sháh Duráni, to assist his son Timúr in repelling the Marhattás, crossed the Jhelum at Khusháb, marched up the left bank of the river, and laid waste the three largest towns of the District. Bhera and Miáni (Meeanee) rose again from their ruins; but only the foundations of Chak Sánu now mark its former site. About the same time, by the death of Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, Khusháb also passed into the hands of Rájá Salámat Rái. Shortly after, however, Abbás Khán, a Khattak, who held Pind Dádan Khán and the Salt Range for Ahmad Sháh, treacherously put the Rájá to death, and seized upon Bhera. But Abbás Khán was himself thrown into prison as a revenue defaulter; and Fateh Sinh, nephew of Salámat Rái, then recovered his uncle's dominions. After the final success of the Síkhs against Ahmad Sháh in 1763, Chattar Sinh of the Sukarchakia *misl* or confederacy overran the whole Salt Range, while the Bhangi chieftains parcelled out among themselves the country between those hills and the Chenáb. Meanwhile, the Muhammadan rulers of Sahiwál, Mitha Tiwána, and Khusháb had assumed independence, and managed, though hard pressed, to resist the encroachments of the Síkhs. The succeeding period was one of constant anarchy, aggressive warfare, and territorial changes among the petty princes of the District, only checked by the gradual rise of Mahá Sinh, and his son, the great Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh. The former made himself master of Miáni in 1783; and the latter succeeded in annexing Bhera in 1803. Six years later, Ranjít Sinh turned his arms against the Baluch chieftains of Sahiwál and Khusháb, whom he overcame by combined force and treachery. At

the same time, he swallowed up certain smaller domains in the same neighbourhood; and in 1810, effected the conquest of all the country subject to the Siál chiefs of Jhang. In 1816, the conqueror turned his attention to the Máliks of Mitha Tiwána. The Muhammadan chief retired to Nurpur, in the heart of the *thal*, hoping that the scarcity of water and supplies might check the Síkh advance. But Ranjít Sinh's general sank wells as he marched, so that the Tiwánas fled in despair, and wandered about for a time as outcasts. The Mahárájá, however, after annexing their territory, dreaded their energy and influence, and therefore endeavoured to conciliate them by inviting them to Lahore, where he made a liberal provision for their support. On the death of the famous Hari Sinh—to whom had been assigned the Tiwána estates—at Jamrúd, in 1837, Fateh Khán, the representative of the Tiwána family, obtained a grant of the ancestral domains from his patron at court, Rájá Dhián Sinh. Thenceforward, Málik Fateh Khán took a prominent part in the turbulent politics of the Síkh realm, after the rapidly succeeding deaths of Ranjít Sinh, his son, and grandson. Thrown into prison by the opposite faction, after the murder of Dhiám Sinh, he was released by Lieut. (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who sent him to Bannu on the outbreak of the Múltán rebellion to relieve Lieut. Taylor. Shortly afterwards the Síkh troops mutinied, and Fateh Khán was shot down while boldly challenging the bravest champion of the Síkhs to meet him in single combat. His son and a cousin proved themselves actively loyal during the revolt, and were rewarded for their good service both at this period and after the Mutiny of 1857. The District passed under direct British rule, with the rest of the Punjab, on the suppression of the Múltán rebellion. At the period of annexation, the greater part of the country was peopled only by wild pastoral tribes, without fixed abodes, but moving from place to place in search of grass and water. Under the influence of settled government, they have begun to establish themselves in permanent habitations, to cultivate the soil in all suitable places, and to acquire a feeling of attachment to their regular homes. The Mutiny of 1857 had little influence upon Sháhpur. The District remained tranquil, and though the villages of the *bár* gave cause for alarm, no outbreak of sepoys took place, and the wild tribes of the upland did not revolt even when their brethren in the Múltán Division took up arms. A body of Tiwána horse, levied in the District, did excellent service, and earned for their Máliks the coveted title of Khán Bahádur.

Population.—The Census of 1855 was taken over an area so greatly altered by subsequent territorial changes (as the trans-Jhelum tract then lay chiefly within the old District of Leiah) that detailed comparison with later statistics becomes impossible. A rough calculation,

however, would appear to show that the general density of population increased 25 per cent. between that date and 1868; and although this increase may be regarded as excessive, there can be no doubt that the number of inhabitants has grown with great rapidity ever since the annexation. The enumeration of 1868 extended over a total area of 4700 square miles, and disclosed a population of 368,796 persons, distributed among 667 villages or townships, and inhabiting 86,549 houses. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 78·55; villages per square mile, 0·14; houses per square mile, 18·42; persons per village, 552; persons per house, 4·26. But though the density of population is thus low, when the desert area is taken into account, the proportion of inhabitants to the cultivable surface is really very high, being upwards of 400 per square mile in the tilled portions of the Salt Range. The cultivable land, indeed, is very much subdivided, and is barely sufficient for the support of its inhabitants. Classified according to sex, the Census showed 195,823 males and 172,973 females; proportion of males, 53·10 per cent. Classified according to age, the returns give, under 12 years—males, 71,466; females, 63,203; total children, 134,669, or 36 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 124,357; females, 109,770; total adults, 234,127, or 64 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, the faith of Islám immensely preponderates, the number of Muhammadans being 305,507, or 82·82 per cent., as against 53,590 Hindus, or 14·53 per cent.; 3122 Síkhs, or 0·85 per cent.; and 6577 'others,' or 1·78 per cent. The agricultural classes consist almost entirely of Muhammadans, the Hindus being occupied in trading operations. The District contained in 1868 four towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—BHERA, 14,514; SAHIWAL, 8900; KHUSHAB, 8509; and MIANI (Meeanee), 6857. SHAHPUR, the civil station, has only 4743 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The total area under cultivation in 1871-72 amounted to 423,680 acres, of which 252,800 acres were artificially irrigated. The spring harvest forms the main crop of the District. Wheat, the spring staple, covers little less than half the cultivated area; while spiked millet and cotton make up the chief items of the autumn harvest. Among the more valuable commercial crops, sugar-cane is grown only in the valley of the Chenáb, and poppy in the Jhelum lowlands between Sháhpur and Bhera. Wheat thrives best in the alluvial soils that fringe the two rivers, where it is the only crop grown, as after it is cut floods inundate the whole valley, and only subside in time for the next sowing. It also grows luxuriantly in the rich hollows and basins among the Salt Range, where the cool climate admirably suits it. The use of manure and rotation of crops

are little understood. Land from which a spring crop has been taken is occasionally sown afresh for the autumn harvest. In the Salt Range, the richness of the soil admits of successive sowings without any repose; in the tract below the hills, the torrents bring down perpetual supplies of fresh *detritus;* in the alluvial fringe of the rivers, the floods fertilize the soil by their annual deposit of silt, and so render possible a constant succession of double crops; but elsewhere the land lies fallow every second year. The anarchy which followed the break up of the Delhi Empire, and the grinding nature of the Síkh rule, have resulted in the disintegration of the village communities. Most of the tenures at present in existence belong to the type known as *bháyáchára.* Only 66 villages retain the ancient communal type. Agricultural labourers receive their wages entirely in kind, usually in the form of a proportion of the crops grown by their labour. Coolies receive from 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; skilled labourers, from 6d. to 1s. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *joár,* 26 sers per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájra,* 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; and rice, 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commercial importance of the District depends almost entirely upon its connection with the Salt Range, Miáni having been from time immemorial the centre for the salt of the MAYO MINES in Jhelum District. Opium and *sajji* (carbonate of soda) are bought up by traders from Ráwal Pindi, Siálkot, and Kashmír (Cashmere); but most of the surplus produce of Sháhpur finds its way down the river in country boats to Múltán and Sukkur (Sakhar). The chief exports are grain, rice, cotton, wool, *ghí,* and saltpetre; the principal imports—sugar, English piece-goods, and metals. The Povindah merchants from Afghánistán bring down madder, dried fruits, gold coin, and spices in the winter, which they exchange for country cloth. Scarves of silk and cotton are manufactured at Khusháb; turned and lacquered toys at Sahiwál; felt at Bhera; and blankets throughout the District. Sháhpur has no railroads; but good fair-weather roads intersect it in several directions, the chief being that from Láhore to Bannu and Derá Ismáil Khán, which passes Sháhpur and Khusháb, and that which runs along the left bank of the Jhelum from Pind Dádan Khán to Múltán. Tolerable roads also open up the Salt Range; and the two main rivers are navigable throughout their whole course within this District.

Administration.—The District staff comprises a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioner, and the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The total amount of revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £469,955, of which sum the land tax contributed only £43,514. The largest item is

that of salt and customs, amounting to as much as £418,579. The incidence of the salt tax makes Sháhpur the most valuable District in point of revenue in the whole Punjab; but the mines from which the income is really derived lie within the neighbouring District of Jhelum. The total police force in 1873 amounted to 462 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 11·34 square miles of area and every 1334 of the population. The District jail, near the civil station of Sháhpur, contained in 1872 a daily average of 274 prisoners. Education still remains at a very low ebb, except in the four larger towns, while the nomad peasantry of the *bár* regard it with positive aversion. The District contained in 1872-73, 187 schools, with a roll of 4381 pupils. There is one printing press at the Sháhpur jail. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 3 *tahsíls*. The six municipal towns of MIANI, SAHIWAL, KHUSHAB, BHERA, SHAHPUR, and GIROT had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £2979; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3⅜d. per head of the population (46,322) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the plains is hot and dry, but in the Salt Range the temperature is cool and the rainfall more abundant. The annual rainfall in the plains for the six years ending 1871-72 averaged 19·01 inches, the maximum during that period being 36 inches in 1868-69, and the minimum 11·2 inches in 1866-67. No record of temperature is now kept, but the registers of 1868-70 give a mean temperature in the shade of 80·65 F. The principal endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, dysentery and diarrhœa. Goitre prevails on the right bank of the Chenáb, and guineaworm at the foot of the Salt Range. The total number of deaths reported in 1872 was 14,443, of which 10,426 were assigned to fevers and 584 to bowel complaints. The District contains 7 charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 42,118 persons, of whom 461 were in-patients.

Sháhpur.—*Tahsíl* of Sháhpur District, Punjab; lying in the Jetch Doáb portion of the District, and consisting of a narrow belt of cultivation along the Jhelum (Jhílam) river, together with a wide sterile upland tract in the rear.

Sháhpur.—Town and administrative headquarters of Sháhpur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4743. Situated in lat. 32° 16′ N., and long. 72° 31′ E., on the left bank of the Jhelum (Jhílam) river, exactly opposite KHUSHAB. Derives its only claim to importance from the presence of the civil station. Court-house, *tahsíli*, police station, staging bungalow, *sarái* (native inn), dispensary, school-house, and town hall.

Sháhpur.—Hill range in Mándla District, Central Provinces; north of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, while the Johilá flows below. Forms

part of the watershed between Eastern and Western India. The scenery is wild and desolate, the only inhabitants being a few small colonies of Gonds and Baigás. The Gejar and Ganjái stream down from the highlands in a series of waterfalls, the finest of which is 60 feet high; behind the falls yawn dark caverns, tenanted by wild beasts and by reputed evil spirits. Most of the range, however, is under the immediate protection of Mahádeva.

Sháhpura.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency. Estimated area, 400 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 36,000. Revenue, excluding alienations, about £20,000. The country is flat and treeless, but fertile; much of it is pasture land. The Rájá of Sháhpura holds a fief under the Maháráná of Udáipur, consisting of 74 villages, with an estimated population of about 16,000 persons, and a revenue of £3500. Tribute of £300 is paid to the State of Udáipur. The Rájá is thus a feudatory both of the British Government and of Udáipur. The ruling family is of the Sesodia Rájput clan, being descended from a former Ráná of Udáipur. The founder of the house was Suráj Mall, a younger son of the Ráná, from whom the late chief was tenth in direct lineal descent. Suráj Mall received as his portion the *parganá* of Kherar in Udáipur, and his son also acquired from the Emperor Sháh Jahán, in reward for his gallant services, a grant of the *parganá* of Phulia out of the crown lands of Ajmere, upon condition of furnishing certain horse and footmen for service. He abandoned the town of Phulia and founded the present town of SHAHPURA. In 1848, the Rájá of Sháhpura received a *sanad* from the British Government fixing the amount of his tribute at £1000 per annum, with the proviso that if the customs duties levied in Ajmere were abolished he should also cease to collect such duties, and in consideration of such loss of revenue his tribute should be reduced to £200. The chief also holds a *sanad* guaranteeing to him the right of adoption. The present Rájá, Dhiráj Nahar Sinh, was born about 1855. There is a dispensary in the State, and vaccination is encouraged. The military force of the State consists of 12 guns, 20 artillerymen, 250 cavalry, and the same number of infantry.

Sháhpura.—Capital of Sháhpura State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 23′ 45″ N., long. 76° 1′ E. School, in which Hindi and arithmetic are the chief subjects taught, attended in 1875 by 198 pupils. In that year, a girls' school was also established.

Sháhpuri.—Small island, situated at the mouth of the Náaf river in Chittagong District, Bengal; famous as having afforded the *casus belli* of the first Burmese war. The Burmese claimed possession of the island, although it had for many years been in the undisputed occupation of the British. Tolls were levied upon boats belonging to Chittagong;

and on one occasion, the demand being resisted, the Burmese fired upon the party and killed the steersman. This act of violence was followed by the assemblage of armed men on the eastern side of the Náaf, and universal consternation pervaded the villages in this the most remote and unprotected portion of Chittagong District. On the night of the 24th September 1823, the Burmese proceeded to enforce their claim to the island of Sháhpuri; a thousand men landed on the island, overpowered the guard, killed and wounded several of the party, and drove the rest off the island. As soon as this was known at Calcutta, a detachment of troops was sent to dislodge the Burmese, who, however, had previously retired. The occupation of Sháhpuri by a military force had the effect of arresting for a time the hostile demonstrations of the Burmese on the Chittagong frontier. But not long afterwards the Rájá of Arakan was ordered to expel the English from Sháhpuri, and officials from Ava proceeded to take possession of the island, which had been temporarily abandoned on account of its unhealthiness. This and other acts of hostility rendered war inevitable; and in a proclamation dated the 24th February 1824, the grounds on which the first Burmese war was declared were made known.

Shahr Sultan.—Town in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 35′ N., and long. 71° 2′ E. Pop. (1868), 2836.

Shaikháwati (*Shekháwati*).—A Province of Jáipur State in Rájputána; situated between lat. 27° 20′ and 28° 33′ N., and long. 74° 40′ and 76° 5′ E. It is bounded on the north-east by the Punjab States of Loháru and Patiála, on the south-east by Jáipur proper, on the south by Jodhpur or Márwár, and on the west and north-west by Bíkaner. Its area has been estimated at 5400 square miles, and its population at 432,000. In its physical aspects, the more fertile part of Shaikháwati resembles Jáipur; but a large portion of its soil is sandy desert, like that of Bíkaner. There are no perennial rivers; but a small stream, which rises in the northern part of Jáipur, flows northward for some distance through Shaikháwati, ultimately losing itself in the sand. There is an important salt lake in the Province, called Kachor-Rewas; it is not worked by any means to its full capacity, but the present yearly out-turn of salt is about 6000 tons. The minerals of Shaikháwati are important; the copper-mines near Khetri being perhaps the most valuable in India. The ores are copper pyrites, mixed, it is said, with grey copper-ore (fahlerz or tetrahedrite); some carbonates also occur, and native copper has been found. Near the surface, also, in the shales, blue vitriol is produced by the decomposition of the pyrites. In the same mines cobalt is also obtained, the ore occurring in small veins. These mines have evidently been worked for a very long period. Some of the hills in the neighbourhood are honeycombed with old excavations; and the heaps of slag from the furnaces have accumulated in the

course of time, until they now form a range of hillocks several hundred feet in length and from 30 to 40 feet high.

History, etc. — Shaikháwati is politically a confederacy of petty Rájput chieftains, bound to each other and to their common overlord at Jáipur by the ties of clanship. The Shaikháwats are a sept of that Kachwáha clan whose head is the Mahárájá of Jáipur or Amber. They derive their name from Shaikhjí, the grandson of Bálají, who was a younger son of the Mahárájá of Jáipur in 1389 A.D., and received a portion of this territory in appanage. Shaikhjí was so called from a famous Musalmán saint named Shaikh Burhán, whose shrine near Achrol is still regarded with veneration, and whose prayers had been successfully invoked by Shaikhjí's father for the birth of a son and heir. In commemoration of this incident, every Shaikháwat boy wears, for two years from his birth, the Musalmán *badiá* or threads, as well as the blue tunic and cap; and the Shaikháwat sportsmen never hunt the wild hog or touch its flesh, although by other Rájputs it is commonly eaten once a year. Moreover, although the lands surrounding the saint's *dargah* belong now to the demesne of the Jáipur Mahárájá, the *dargah* itself is a sanctuary, and rent-free lands are held by about a hundred families descended from Shaikh Burhán. Shaikhjí's father and grandfather had paid as tribute to the Mahárájá all the colts reared on their land; but Shaikhjí so enlarged his power that for some generations the lords of Shaikháwati became independent of the parent State. From Shaikhji's great-grandson, Rái Síl, are descended the chieftains of Southern Shaikháwati, who hence have always been known as Ráisilots; and from a younger son of Rái Síl are descended the principal chieftains of Northern Shaikháwati, called the Sádhánis. The chief settlement of the Ráisilots, and the most important principality of Shaikháwati, was at Khandela; whilst the early seat of the Sádhánis was at Udáipur, another town of this territory, not to be confounded with the capital of Mewár. There have been, and still are, many other branches of the family, between whom feuds, conquests, and reconquests have been interminable. Rái Síl himself became chief both of Khandela and of Udáipur by the help of the Delhi Emperor; and he is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as a *mansabdár* of 1250 horse under Akbar. After the fatal battle of Merta, in 1754, had laid Rájputána prostrate at the feet of the Marhattás under De Boigne, Shaikháwati suffered severely from their ravages; most of her towns were sacked, the capital, Khandela, being saved from that fate only by a heavy payment. Later on, it was the scene of some of the exploits of the famous adventurer George Thomas, who was called in by a chief of Khandela to aid him against Jáipur. Finally, however, the Shaikháwat chieftains acknowledged the suzerainty of Jáipur; though the bond seems never to have been very close. The leading chiefships are those of Sikar and Khandela, Khetri and Kotputli.

The custom of equal division on succession to land in Shaikháwati is similar to that which prevails in Maláni, a dependency of Jodhpur that holds much the same kind of relation to its parent State that Shaikháwati does to Jáipur; and therein the custom differs from that prevalent elsewhere throughout Rájputána, where the eldest son succeeds. The custom, however, does not appear to extend to the larger estates and chiefships in Shaikháwati.

Shaikh Budín (*Shekh Budín*).—Hill sanatorium in Bannu (Bunnoo) and Derá Ismáil Khán Districts, Punjab, lying in lat. 32° 17′ 48″ N., and long. 70° 50′ 48″ E., on the border of the two Districts, but included for administrative purposes in Derá Ismáil Khán. Elevation above sea level, 4516 feet. Distant from Derá Ismáil Khán town 57 miles north, from Bannu town 64 miles south. The sanatorium crowns a bare limestone rock, which rises abruptly from the low range of Mohar, whose highest point it forms. A few stunted wild olives and acacias compose the only vegetation on the shadeless slope. The heat is frequently excessive, though mitigated from June to October by a cool south-western breeze. This drawback, combined with the want of sufficient water supply and the paucity of building sites, renders Shaikh Budín a very inadequate sanatorium. Persons who go up in good health are seldom attacked by illness; but the climate is not bracing enough for constitutions which require a radical change.

Shaikh Budín (*Shekh Budín*).—Mountain range, separating the Districts of Bannu and Derá Ismáil Khán, Punjab. The highest point (4516 feet above sea level) is occupied (lat. 32° 17′ 48″ N., long. 70° 50′ 48″ E.) by the sanatorium which takes its name (Shaikh Budín) from the range.

Shaikhpurá.—Town and *thána* in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 8′ 30″ N., long. 85° 53′ 11″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,536. Police force, 23 men.

Shakargarh.—*Tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; comprising the whole trans-Rávi portion of the District, except Narot *parganá*.

Shakargarh.—Town and fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab.—*See* SHABKADAR.

Sha-khai.—Revenue circle in the Tsam-bay-rún (or Kyún-paw) township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3296; gross revenue, £989.

Shálí.—Hill in Bhajji State, Simlá District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 77° 20′ E. Described by Thornton as rising in a steep and almost inaccessible peak 4 miles south of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and containing on its summit a wooden temple where human sacrifices were formerly offered to the goddess Káli. Elevation above sea level, 9623 feet.

Shalvari.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 32 miles east by north of Dhárwár town. Pop. (1872), 5220.

Shámli.—North-western *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; comprising a level upland, traversed throughout by the Eastern Jumna Canal, whose distributaries extend over every part of its surface. Area, 461 square miles, of which 268 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 195,990; land revenue, £32,099; total Government revenue, £37,548; rental paid by cultivators, £71,239.

Shámli.—Trading town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 29° 26′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 21′ 10″ E., on the bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, 24 miles west of Muzaffarnagar town, on a low unhealthy site. Pop. (1872), 9177, consisting of 7158 Hindus and 2019 Muhammadans. Shámli suffers much from malarious diseases; but a scheme of drainage now (1875) in progress will probably do much to lessen this evil. Handsome *bázár;* considerable trade with the Punjab, consisting of exports of sugar and imports of salt. Originally known as Muhammadpur Zanárdár; derives its present name from Shám, who built a market in Jahángír's reign. Held in 1794 by a Marhattá commandant, who fell under suspicion of intriguing with the Síkhs. Lakwa Dáda, the Marhattá governor, despatched George Thomas against the commandant. Thomas stormed the town, and cut to pieces the suspected parties. In 1804, Colonel Burn was surrounded at Shámli by an overwhelming force of Marhattás, but escaped from a desperate position through the opportune advance of Lord Lake. During the Mutiny of 1857, the native *tahsíldár* held the town bravely for the British; but fell at last gallantly defending his post against the insurgents of THANA BHAWAN. Police station, post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1205; from taxes, £976, or 2s. 1⅛d. per head of population (9300) within municipal limits.

Shamsha (or *Shimshupa;* also called the *Kadamba* and the *Kadaba-kola*).—Tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, in Mysore. It rises in lat. 13° 25′ N., long. 77° 15′ E., in Túmkúr District near Deveráy-durga, and flows in a southerly direction to join the Káveri, in lat. 12° 19′ N., long. 77° 18′ E., just below the falls of Sivasamudaram, in Mysore District. In Túmkúr District its waters are utilized to form the great Kadaba tank; and in Mysore District it is crossed by a dam or anicut 9 miles above Maddúr. This anicut has recently been rebuilt by the Public Works Department of hewn stone. It feeds the Maddúr tank, and supplies irrigation channels 12 miles in length, capable of irrigating 2240 acres, and yielding a revenue of £671.

Shamshábád.—Town in Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 32′ 15″ N., and long. 79° 28′ 40″ E., on the south bank of the Buddhi Ganga river, 18 miles north-west of Fatehgarh. Pop. (1872), 8710. Anglo-vernacular school.

Shámsherganj.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam; situated in lat.

24° 43′ N., and long. 91° 34′ E. There is a considerable river trade, the exports being—rice, oil-seeds, molasses, *sítalpáti* and bamboo mats; and the imports—piece-goods, pulses, spices, and tobacco.

Shan-kweng.—Revenue circle in the Tha-boung township of Bassein District, Pegu, British Burma. Area, 40 square miles; pop. (1878), 2402; gross revenue, £723. With the exception of a rice tract in the east, this circle consists of a mass of densely wooded spurs from the Arakan range, across which a pass runs from the village of Tha-boung to Khyoung-thai, about 400 feet above sea level.

Shanor.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 3¾ square miles. Estimated revenue in 1875, £1000, of which £157 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is Ráná Kúshal Sinhjí.

Shápur.—One of the petty States of Hállár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £650; of which £46 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £14 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sháradánadí (or *Anakapalli*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Rises in the Madgol Hills, and, flowing south-west past Anakapalli and Kásimkota, enters the sea at Wattada. It is much used for irrigation, being crossed by six large anicuts. The total length of the river is about 45 miles.

Shárakpur.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab, comprising the whole trans-Rávi portion of the District.

Sharakpur.—Town in Lahore District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 31° 27′ N., and long. 74° 6′ E., west of the Rávi, and on the bank of the river Degh. Pop. (1868), 4162. The best rice of the District is grown in the neighbourhood, on land irrigated from the Degh. Only town of any importance in the trans-Rávi tract, and centre of a considerable trade in local produce.

Sharavatí (*'The Arrowy'*).—River of Southern India, which rises in lat. 13° 44′ N., long. 75° 11′ E., at Ambu-tirtha in Shimoga District, Mysore; flows in a north-westerly direction through the District of Shimoga, and, after breaking through the line of the Western Gháts by a sheer leap of 900 feet over the magnificent Falls of Gersoppa, falls into the sea at Honáwar in the Bombay District of North Kánara. In Shimoga District, the stream is crossed by 70 anicuts or dams, from which irrigation channels are drawn having an aggregate length of 26 miles.

Sharretalai.—Chief town of the Sharretalai District of Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 41′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 23′ 20″ E. Pop. (1871), 9228 (among whom are many Christians), dwelling in 2190 houses. The town contains a pagoda, which is the scene of an annual festival; and a Syro-Roman Church, built about 1550 A.D.

Shatal (*Shatul*).—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, on the

road from Chuára to Kunáwar, over the southernmost ridge of the Himálayas. Lat. 31° 23′ N., long. 78° 3′ E. Mentioned by Thornton as dangerous on account both of the deep snow and cold wind. Elevation above sea level, 15,555 feet.

Shegáon.—Town in Akola District, Berar, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; situated in lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 76° 46′ E., 24 miles west of Akola town, and about 11 miles from Bálápur and Khámgáon. Pop., according to the Census of 1867, 7450; according to the Administrative Report for 1876-77, 8120. Before the opening of the railway in 1863, Shegáon had little commerce; but a cotton market is now held here, and considerable supplies of cotton have of late been brought here instead of to Khámgáon. There are several cotton presses, some under European superintendence. Travellers' bungalow, sarái (native inn), and police station; Government school, and post office.

Shekháwati.—Division of Jáipur State, Rájputána.—*See* SHAIKHAWATI.

Shekh Budin.—Sanatorium and mountains in Derá Ismáil Khán and Bannu Districts, Punjab.—*See* SHAIKH BUDIN.

Shekohpura.—Ancient town in Gujránwálá District, Punjab; situated on the road between Háfizábád and Lahore, 22 miles from the former town. Contains a ruined fort, built by the Emperor Jahángír. Prince Dára Shekoh, grandson of Jahángír, from whom the town probably derives its name, is said to have connected it by a cut with the Aik rivulet, and this cut now forms the main channel of the stream. Under Ranjít Sinh, Shekohpura became the residence of one of his queens, Rání Ráj Kauran, better known as Rání Nakáyan, whose cumbrous brick palace still remains the most conspicuous object in the town. After British annexation, the headquarters of the District were fixed for a time at this spot; but since the removal of the civil station to Gujránwála, Shekohpura has possessed no importance of any sort, except as a resort for sportsmen.

Shellá.—Petty State or confederacy in the Khásí Hills, Assam; presided over by two elective chiefs of equal authority, with the title of *wáhadádárs.* Pop. (1872), 5511; revenue, £70. The natural products include oranges, pine-apples, and betel-nuts. Bamboos are worked into mats and baskets. Limestone is extensively quarried, and both coal and iron are found. Shellá has been for many years a station of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission, who maintain a school in which English is taught, and also a girls' school.

Shendamangalam.—Town in Salem District, Madras. Lat. 11° 40′ 30″ N., long. 78° 10′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 11,783, inhabiting 3114 houses. A considerable amount of iron is smelted here.

Shendurni.—Alienated town in Khándesh District, Bombay; situ-

ated in lat. 20° 39′ N., and long. 75° 39′ E., 60 miles south-east of Dhulia, and 17 miles east of Páchora station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pop. (1872), 5350. Shendurni was a grant made to the family priest of the Peshwá, Bájí Ráo. An annual Hindu fair is held here. Post office.

Sheng-dha-wai.—A highly venerated pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is 77 feet high, and 301 feet in circumference at the base. The shrine is supposed to enclose a relic of Gautama, which, released by its possessor the miraculously-born Theng-gan Meng, alighted at the spot where the pagoda now stands, and was received by the people in a golden basket.

Sheng-maw.—Pagoda on Tavoy Point, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Founded in 1204 A.D. by Nara-pad-dí-tsí-thú, King of Burma, when he visited this part of his dominions. It is highly reverenced as containing a tooth of Gautama.

Sheng-mút-tí (*Sheng-moot-tee*).—The most famous pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; 58 feet high, and 308 feet in circumference at the base. It is said to have been built to enshrine an image which was miraculously floated from India to the spot where the sacred edifice now stands. A sacred stone and a banian tree are shown near the pagoda. An annual festival is held here.

Sheng-ngay.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2142; land revenue, £446, and capitation tax, £232.

Shenkotta.—Chief town of the Shenkotta District of Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 59′ N., and long. 77° 17′ 45″ E., on the main road from Trevandrum and the South Travancore ports, across the Gháts, to Tinnevelli, from which place it is distant about 40 miles. Pop. (1871), 9752, inhabiting 2621 houses. Several coffee estates have been opened in the neighbourhood of Shenkotta, which is an important centre of trade.

Sheopur.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* SEOPUR.

Sher.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 79° 44′ E., near Khamariá in Seoní District, which, after a north-westerly course of 80 miles, falls into the Narbadá (Nerbudda), in lat. 23° N., long. 79° 10′ E., near the centre of Narsinhpur District. It is spanned by a fine stone bridge at Sonái Dongrí in Seoní, which carries the Nágpur and Jabalpur road; and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses it by a lattice girder bridge 8 miles east of Narsinhpur. Coal, but of no commercial value, has been found in the river-bed near Sihorá in Narsinhpur. Principal affluents—the Mácha, Rewa, and Barú Rewa.

Sher Alí.—Port in North Kánara District, Bombay.—*See* SHIRALI.

Shergarh.—Town in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 46′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 38′ 40″ E., on

the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), 8 miles north-east of Chháta. Pop. (1872), 5305.

Shergarh.—Ruined village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 83° 46′ 15″ E., 20 miles south-west of Sásserám. This spot was selected by Sher Sháh as the site of a fortress soon after he had begun strengthening ROHTAS, which he abandoned on discovering the superior advantages of Shergarh.

Sherghátí.—Municipal town in Gayá District, Bengal; situated at the point where the Grand Trunk Road crosses the Murahar, in lat. 24° 33′ 24″ N., and long. 84° 50′ 28″ E. Pop. (1872), 7033. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £110; rate of taxation, 3⅝d. per head of population; police force, 20 men. The town has declined in importance since the construction of the East Indian Railway. There are still to be found here the descendants of skilled artisans, workers in brass, wood, and iron. When Sherghátí formed part of the District of Rámgarh it was known as a centre of crime, which led to the appointment of a special Joint Magistrate in 1814.

Sherkot.—Town in Bijnáur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 19′ 35″ N., and long. 78° 36′ 55″ E., on the bank of the Kho river. Pop. (1872), 12,586. Formerly headquarters of the Dhámpur *tahsíl*, now the residence of Chaudhri Basant Sinh, a wealthy *tálukdár*.

Shermádevi (*Sheranmahádevi*).—Town in Ambásamudaram *táluk*, Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 40′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 35′ 13″ E., on the Támbraparni river. Formerly headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name; at present residence of the Sub-Collector of the District. Pop. (1871), 6064; number of houses, 1870.

Sheroda.—State in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* SHIRODA.

Sherpur.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 83° 50′ E., on the alluvial plain south of the Ganges. Pop. (1872), 7958.

Sherpur.—Municipal town in Bográ District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 40′ 20″ N., long. 89° 28′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 4229, consisting of 2778 Hindus, 1404 Muhammadans, and 47 'others.' Municipal income (1876-77), £260; incidence of taxation, 1s. 2¼d. per head of population. Though the number of Hindus is so great, the town is surrounded on all sides by Muhammadan places of worship, which are held in much esteem. The proportion of brick-built houses is unusually large, and the principal landholders of the District reside in the town. But it is as a place of historical interest that Sherpur is most deserving of notice. It is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí*, 1595 A.D., as the site of a fort called Salímnagar, in honour of Salím, the son of Akbar, afterwards famous as the Emperor Jahángír. It also figures in the writings of other Muhammadan historians as an important frontier post, previous

to the conquest of South-Eastern Bengal, and the establishment of the Government at Dacca. These writers always refer to the place as Sherpur Murchá, to distinguish it from another Sherpur in Maimansinh; and it is marked on Van den Broucke's Map (1660) as 'Ceerpoor Mirts.' Rájá Mán Sinh, Akbar's Hindu general, is said to have built a palace at Sherpur; and it is very probable that he would make use of so convenient a centre, from which to dominate Southern Bengal, and particularly Jessor, which then (about 1600 A.D.) included a large part of the present District of Pabná, and was held by the rebel *zamíndár*, Rájá Pratápáditya, against whom Mán Sinh specially directed his arms.

Sherpur.—Municipal town in Maimansinh District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 0′ 58″ N., long. 90° 3′ 6″ E.; lies between the rivers Shirí and Mirghí, about half a mile from the former and 1 mile from the latter, 9 miles north of Jamalpur. Pop. (1872), 8015, including the suburbs of Náráyanpur and Barukpára. There is no water carriage to the town, and even water for drinking and household purposes is obtained solely from tanks. Sherpur contains a fine Hindu temple; its buildings in general are in bad repair, and the place has a decayed and neglected appearance. Police station, post office, subordinate judge's court, and a good school. Municipal income (1876-77), £320; rate of taxation, 9⅛d. per head of population. Considerable river trade. In 1876-77, the registered exports comprised 27,100 *maunds* of jute (mostly sent to Náráyanganj), 35,100 *maunds* of rice and paddy, and 30,600 *maunds* of mustard seed; the imports included European piece-goods, valued at £5770, and 1200 *maunds* of betel-nuts.

Sherpur.—Chief town of the Sherpur Subdivision of Khándesh District, Bombay; situated 30 miles north of Dhulia, in lat. 21° 21′ N., and long. 74° 57′ E. Pop. (1872), 6571. Sherpur is a municipal town, with an annual income of £185. Post office.

Sher Shah.—River fort in Múltán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 6′ 45″ N., and long. 71° 20′ E., upon the Chenáb river. Until the opening of the Indus Valley State Railway in 1879, Sher Shah was the terminus of the line from Múltán, and the port of the steam flotilla that plied to Karáchi (Kurrachee).

Shervaráyar Malai. — Hills in Salem District, Madras. — *See* SHEVAROY.

Shetrunja (*Satrunjaya*).—Great place of Jain pilgrimage in Pálitána, Guzerat, Bombay.—*See* PALITANA TOWN.

Sheva (*Siva*).—Port on the coast of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 3′ N., long. 72° 54′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £2533, and exports, £1680.

Shevaroy Hills (*Seervaráyar Malai*). — Hill range in Salem District, Madras; situated between 11° 43′ and 11° 55′ N. lat., and between 78° 13′ and 78° 24′ 30″ E. long. The hills occupy a

total area of about 100 square miles, with a plateau of about 20 square miles; average elevation 4500 feet; highest point in the Green Hills, 5410 feet above the sea. The population of the hills was returned in 1871 at 10,745; number of houses, 2812. Two passes or *gháts* lead to the tableland—one on the south from Salem city, and the other on the north from the Báramahál. The former is about 6 miles in length, and is a Government road. It is in some parts very steep and impassable for wheeled conveyances; but it is capable of improvement. This is at present the only practicable approach to the hills, and the daily supplies of the inhabitants are brought up from Salem on this road by coolies, or on the backs of bullocks. The northern *ghát* is reached from the Mallápuram railway station; and although no road has as yet been constructed, the gradients are said to be easy, and a carriage-way practicable. Mallápuram is distant 180 miles from Madras, and 8 miles from the foot of the hills. Coolies for carrying loads are to be had at the Shevaroy Hills station on the arrival of the trains. From its elevation and geographical position, it may be inferred that the Shevaroy Mountain range possesses a very equable climate. Partaking as it does of both monsoons, the rainfall is considerable, and the moisture of the air tolerably constant during the year. In a room without a fire, and with open windows, the thermometer seldom stands below 65° F., and rarely rises above 75° F. in the hottest months. The flora is almost precisely similar to that found at a corresponding elevation on the Palani, Nílgiri, and Anamalai ranges. The base of the mountains is covered with the common forms of vegetation found in the adjoining low country. The middle region is clothed with a zone of bamboo jungle, which ascends to a height of about 3500 feet, where it abruptly terminates. Teak, blackwood, and sandal-wood are found, in favourable situations, up to this elevation. The teak, in a stunted form, is met with on the mountain plateau at an elevation of 4500 feet. Tigers are not very often seen, and generally come from the low country. Leopards are more numerous. Bison and bears are found on the Nagalúr side of the hills. The *sambhar* and spotted deer are sometimes met with in the jungle low down on the mountain-side. Jungle sheep and hares are common on the hill plateau, but difficult to shoot, from the thickness of the cover.

YERCAUD (Yerkádu) is the oldest and largest European settlement in the hills. It is situated on that portion of the plateau nearest to the town of Salem. The land in the valleys is undulating, and a great portion of it is already under coffee cultivation. The hill peaks are for the most part bare of soil, and the steep slopes are covered with low jungle.

The Green Hills are higher than any other portion of the range, and vary from 4500 to 5300 feet above sea level. They differ much in

appearance from any other portion of the Shevaroys. The tops of the hills are rounded, and covered only with grass and low stunted shrubs; the ravines are wooded, as on the Nílgiris (Neilgherries). The rounded and undulating appearance of this portion of the Shevaroys contrasts markedly with the rugged peaks and wooded slopes about Yercaud. This difference is due chiefly to the Green Hills being capped with laterite, in some places of considerable thickness. Several coffee plantations have been opened by Europeans and Eurasians upon the Green Hills; and there is a fine expanse of tableland, partly under cultivation by the hill tribes, which has been pointed out by Dr. Macpherson, Inspector-General of Hospitals, as a site well adapted for a sanatorium for European troops. This site occupies about 250 acres of land, and appears to be eminently suited for building.

Shiár.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over a southward spur of the Himálayas, which bound Kunáwar to the south. Lat. 31° 19′ N., long. 77° 58′ E. (Thornton). Magnificent prospect from the summit, embracing the Chor Mountain and the peaks of Jamnotri. Elevation above sea level, 13,720.

Shibi (*Sibi*).—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 15 miles north of Túmkúr town. Pop. (1871), 754. Celebrated for a temple of Vishnu, after his name of Nara-sinha, erected by three brothers in the beginning of this century. It is a plain structure, surrounded by a high stone wall. The annual festival, held for 15 days from the full moon in the month of Mágh, is attended by 10,000 people, and supplies the occasion for a great deal of trade.

Shikárpur.—A British District in the Province of Sind, lying between 27° and 29° N. lat., and between 67° and 70° E. long. Bounded on the north by Baluchistán or the territory of the Khán of Khelát, the Frontier District of Upper Sind, and the river Indus; on the east by the Native States of Baháwalpur and Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere); on the south by Khairpur State and the Sehwán Subdivision of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and on the west by the Khirthar Mountains. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract published in 1879, 8813 square miles; pop. (1872), 776,227. The District comprises the 4 Subdivisions of ROHRI, SHIKARPUR and SUKKUR, LARKHANA, and MEHAR. The administrative headquarters are at SHIKARPUR TOWN, which is also the most populous place in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Shikárpur District is that of a vast alluvial plain, broken only at Sukkur (Sakhar) and Rohri by low limestone hills, which tend to preserve a permanent bank for the Indus at those places. Towards the west, in the Mehar and Lárkhána Sub-Districts, rises the Khirthar range, with an extreme elevation of upwards of 7000 feet, forming a natural boundary between Shikárpur and Baluchistán. Large patches of salt land, known as *kalar*, occur

frequently, especially in the upper part of the District; and towards the Jacobábád frontier, barren tracts of clay, and ridges of sandhills covered with caper and thorn jungle, constitute a distinctive feature in the landscape. The desert portion of the Rohri Sub-District, known as the *Registhán*, possesses extensive sandhills, bold in outline and often fairly wooded. The forests of Shikárpur cover a total area of 207 square miles.

History.—The Districts of Upper Sind can hardly be said to have a history separate from that of the whole Province. Before the Muhammadan invasion, in 712 A.D., this portion of Sind was ruled by a Bráhman race, with their capital at Aror (or Alor), 5 miles distant from the modern town of Rohri. Shikárpur continued for some time a dependency of the Ummayid dynasty, and subsequently of that of the Abassides. In conjunction with the rest of Sind, it was conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, about 1025 A.D.; but his rule was of short duration, being replaced, about 1032, by the Súmra dynasty. The latter was succeeded in its turn by the Samma family, and this again by the Arghúns; for an account of all of which, see the article on SIND.

Upper Sind does not come into any prominence till the accession to power of the Kalhora dynasty, in the early part of the 18th century. Previous to this, the country, which had been annexed in 1591-92 to the Delhi Empire by Akbar, was ruled by a succession of governors; and a powerful tribe, the Dáúdputras, had arisen and displaced the Mahars, an influential clan, whose chief town was then at Lakhi, 9 miles south-east of Shikárpur town. These Mahars had themselves some time before driven out the Jatois, a race of Baluchis, in a manner thus described by Captain (now Major-General) Sir F. G. Goldsmid, in his historical memoir of Shikárpur, written in 1854:—'We learn that there were seven brothers of the tribe (Mahars) in Ubauro, near the present Baháwalpur frontier, of whom one, by name Jaisar, not finding a residence with his near kindred to accord with his views of independence, turned his steps to Bukkur, then occupied by the noted Mahmúd, governor, under Sháh Beg Arghún, of the fort in 1541 A.D. The Jatois, a race of Baluchís, held the country on the west bank of the river between Búrdika and Lárkhána District. This included the town of Lakhi, then a flourishing place, so called from Lakhu, as Gosarji was from Gosar, and Adamji from Adam Jatoi. Jaisar crossed the river and took up his abode among the villages of this people. The Mahars and their new comrades disagreed; but the former had a friend at court, one Músa Khán Mehr, who was a man of influence with Mahmúd, and obtained the assistance of some hundred men to quell the disturbance, by asserting the rights of his own side. The consequence was the subjection of the Jatois, and a partition of their country. Jaisar received the tract extending from Mehláni to Lárkhána

as a free gift (*tindad* and *madad-mash*), on the condition that, after the lapse of a generation, one-tenth of the produce would be claimed by the Government. The Jatois obtained the northern allotment, from Mehláni to Búrdika, on payment, however, of the customary land tax. Jaisar Khán remained at Lakhi, which thus became, as it were, his property; and at his death, his son Akil, in conjunction with a brother, Bakhar, and a cousin, Wadera Sujan Khán, determined on building a new town to replace the old one. The fort which they erected may still be traced. Sujan also built a village called Marúlo, after his son Marú, now known as Wazirábád, from Sháh Wali, the Wazír of Ahmad Sháh Duráni, whose perquisite it in after years became.'

But the Mahars had to contend with the Dáúdputras, who were by profession both warriors and weavers. The results of the contest, and consequent foundation of the city of Shikárpur, are thus narrated by General Sir F. G. Goldsmid:—'The weavers (Dáúdputras) appealed to spiritual authority, as represented in the person of Pír Sultán Ibráhim Sháh, whose tomb still bears testimony to the fact of his existence. He was a holy man of eminence, and numbered the Mahars, as well as their opponents, among his disciples, and he moreover himself resided at Lakhi. He took up the cause of the appellants, and eventually obtained permission for them to resume their hunting in the Shikárgahs, from which they had been warned off by the Mahars. Again, however, they were stopped, and again did they seek the Pír for redress. The Mahars were summoned a second time, and ordered to desist. They remonstrated, and finally informed their venerable mentor that they would never spare the intruders till they had exterminated the whole body, or at least driven them from the vicinity of the Shikárgah, adding, "If you wish to be their comrade, good, be it so." Baffled and distressed, the Pír bethought him of the final resource in such cases. He invoked curses on the rebelling Mahars, and blessings upon the oppressed Dáúdputras. He told his *protégés* that they were as the iron sickle, and their enemies as grass or chaff, and promised them the victory in the event of an engagement. The plot prospered. The crisis drew on, and the battle became inevitable. According to the story of the sons of Dáúd, their ancestors on this occasion could only muster a force of 300 or 400 fighting men, while their opponents numbered 12,000. A sanguinary conflict ensued on the meeting of the hostile forces, which, after the most determined endeavours on either side, eventually terminated in favour of the Dáúdputras, who were left masters of the field. Strange to say, while some 3000 dead bodies of Mahars strewed the ground, but few were killed on the side of the victors. A vigorous pursuit succeeded this victory. It was known that the wealthy *zamíndárs* of Lakhi had *lákhs* of rupees concealed in that city. Thither went the Dáúdputras; and it is by no means

unlikely that, on that particular occasion, they found means of improving the condition of their financial and commissariat departments. The Pír received his successful pupils with as much mundane satisfaction as could be expressed by so holy a man. He congratulated them, and, mounting his palfrey,' continues General Goldsmid, 'he led the weavers to the scene of their exploits. He halted at the ground on which now stands the commercial city of Upper Sind. Muttering some mysterious words, which immediately instilled a dramatic awe into the hearts of the bystanders, he raised his hand high in the air, and gracefully dropped an iron nail, which had long been held there unnoticed. The nature of the movement brought the point well into the earth. It remained transfixed in an admirable position for the chief performer of the play. He pointed to the instrument upon which all eyes were drawn. "Here," said the Pír, "let a city be built, and let it bear the distinguished name of Shikárpur!" The air rang with shouts, and the proceedings terminated in the usual manner on such occasions. The jungle was cut and cleared; neighbours were summoned, threatened, and cajoled; the work proceeded with vigour and rapidity, and by degrees a town appeared. The town in due course became a city, noted for the wealth and enterprise of its merchants, the size and business of its *bázár*, a hot-bed of intrigue, debauchery, bribery, oppression, evil-speaking, and many other kinds of corruption; and so passed away the years till the dawn of the 18th century.'

The Kalhoras had, during the 17th century, been gradually laying the foundation of their subsequent sovereignty in Sind, and the career of Yár Muhammad, the first ruler of this line, is thus described by Goldsmid:—'Mírza Bakhtawar Khán, son of Mírza Panni, was ruler of Siwi, and held a large tract on the west bank of the Indus, in the environs of Shikárpur. Yár Muhammad, associated with Rájá Likki and Iltas Khán Brahui, recommenced aggressive measures by a movement in the country bordering on the Manchhar Lake. He possessed himself of Samtáni, expelling the Panhwars and their head-man, Kaisar; and despatched his brother, Mír Muhammad, to extend his acquisitions by a diversion in an opposite quarter. His objects were achieved with skill and rapidity. His career of conquest made Iltas leave him. "You have no need of me; heaven is on your side; that suffices," said the rough Brahui. Kandiáro and Lárkhána were taken, among less important places. The latter had been held by Málik Alá Bakhsh, brother of Baktawar. The Mírza, upon these reverses, appealed to the Sháhzáda in Múltán, Moiz-ud-dín (afterwards Jahándar Sháh), who no sooner heard the report than he turned to the scene of disturbance. Then Baktawar's heart misgave him, for he did not wish to see the country entrusted to his charge overrun by the troops of his master. He had probably private and particular reasons for the objection

unknown to the historian. He prayed the prince to withhold his march, and on the refusal of his request, had actually the audacity to oppose the advancing hosts. He was slain, and Moiz-ud-dín repaired to Bukkur. Yár Muhammad does not appear to have suffered severely for his offences; on the contrary, the Sháhzáda came gradually round to favour his views of aggrandizement. One after another, new governors were appointed for Siwi, which Province in course of time was handed over to the Wakíls of the Kalhoras. Yár Muhammad received the imperial title of Khúda Yár Khán.'

The reigns of the several Kalhora princes will be found described in some detail in the section treating of the history of the Province. During the Tálpur rule, various parts of Upper Sind, such as Búrdika, Rúpar, the town of Sukkur, and other places, which were dependencies of the Duráni kingdom, had, between the years 1809 and 1824, been gradually annexed to the possessions of the Khairpur Mírs, Sohráb, Rústam, and Mubárak. Shikárpur was the only spot that remained to Afghánistán; and that town eventually came into the peaceable possession of the Mírs in 1824, at a time when Abdul Mansúr Khán was the governor of the place, and when the Síkhs were said to be contemplating an attack upon it. Goldsmid thus refers to this circumstance in his memoir:—'Three or four months after the departure of Rahím Díl Khán, it began to be rumoured that the Síkhs were contemplating an attack upon Shikárpur. At this time the Chevalier Ventura was with a force at Derá Ghází Khán. The Mírs of Sind—Karam and Murád Alí of Haidarábád, and Sohráb, Rústam, and Mubárak of Khairpur—seeing that it would be of great advantage that they should at this juncture take the city into their own hands, deputed the Nawáb Wali Muhammad Khán Lughári to dispossess the Afgháns, and carry out the wishes of his masters. The Nawáb commenced by writing to Abdul Mansúr several letters to the following effect:—"Undoubtedly the Síkhs did wish to take Shikárpur, and were approaching for that particular purpose. Its proximity to the Mírs' possessions in Sind made it very inconvenient for them that it should fall into the hands of this people; moreover, the capture of the place, under the circumstances, would be disgraceful, or at least discreditable, and it was the part of wise men to apply a remedy in time when available. The Afgháns were not in a position to oppose the coming enemy; their Sardárs in Khorasán were in the habit of eating superior mutton, Peshálwar rice, luscious grapes, raisins, delicious cold melons, seedless pomegranates, and rich comfits, and of drinking iced water; it was on account of this application of cold to the body that a martial and lordly spirit possessed them, which it is not the property of heat to impart. It was, moreover, necessary to the well-being of their hardy constitution. While the army was coming from

Khorasán, the city would glide from their hands." A well-known Persian proverb was here judiciously interpolated, viz. On calling the closed-fist to remembrance after the battle, it will be necessary to let the blow fall upon one's own head. "In fine, taking all things into consideration, how much better would it be for the Mírs to occupy Shikárpur; they were Muhammadans as well as the Afgháns. Once having driven away the Síkhs, and deprived the infidels of their dominions, Shikárpur was at no distance; let it then become the property of the Sardárs. Now, in the way of kindness, let them (the Afgháns) return to Khorasán, and join their comrades at table in discussing the *pilaus* and fruits, whereby cure is obtainable of this most destructive heat." Abdul Mansúr Khán, upon receiving these communications, became greatly perplexed, and thought of returning to Khorasán. The Mírs, much as they desired to take possession of the town, were obliged to content themselves with assembling an army without its walls, on the plea of protection against a Síkh invasion. They encamped in the Sháhi Bágh. The Nawáb sent for Júma Khán Barakzái, and through him opened fresh communications with the governor, and tried every artifice to persuade the latter to quit his post. Finding a bold stroke of diplomacy necessary, he urged that he would hold him responsible for the town revenues accruing after the date of the original proposition for transfer to the Mírs. This argument had the desired effect; Abdul Mansúr refused to refund, but agreed to abandon Shikárpur. In this interval, Diláwar, Khitmagar to the Nawáb, entered the city, and coming to the house of Shaukár Muya Rám, established his headquarters there, and caused the change of Government to be notified throughout the *bázár* and streets. The Mírs' followers came gradually in, and at length were regularly installed, and obtained the keys of the eight gates. The next day, Abdul Mansúr Khán, at Júma Khán's instigation, visited the Nawáb in the Sháhi Bágh. The latter, after much flattery and compliment, gave him his dismissal. The ex-governor repaired with his effects to Garhi Yásin, a town in the neighbourhood, and stayed there to execute some unfinished commissions. In a few days, the Nawáb ordered him to depart from thence, which he did, and was soon far on his way to Kandahár. Wali Muhammad felt relieved, and applauded his own handiwork, in that he had won a bloodless victory. He had deprived the Afgháns of a much-loved settlement, and added it to the possessions of the Mírs. The revenue was divided into seven shares; four became the property of the Mírs of Haidarábád, and three of their relatives of Khairpur. Kazim Sháh was the new governor.'

In 1833, during the Tálpur rule, Sháh Shúja, the dethroned Afghán monarch, made an expedition into Upper Sind to recover his lost territory. He marched with a force *viâ* Bahávalpur towards Shikárpur.

He was met near Khairpur by Kazim Sháh, the former governor of Shikárpur, and escorted to the city with all honour, where he was to stay forty days and receive 40,000 rupees (£4000). But though he took the money, he did not leave at the appointed time. Public feeling in Sind ran high. Those who declared for the Sháh on the west bank were taken under his especial protection. He appointed local officials, and commenced legislating for his Sindian *protégés*, treating them in the light of subjects. The climax was a burst of indignation from the offended Mírs, and a rising of their Baluch retainers. A Baluch army, under Mírs Mubárak and Zangí Khán, crossed the river at Rohri, and took up a position at Sukkur, while Sháh Shúja despatched a force of 2000 men under his lieutenant, Samandhar Khán, to meet it. The Mírs had been drawn up near the Láláwáh Canal, which the Sháh's general attacked, throwing the Baluchis into instant confusion, and ultimately defeating them. This victory resulted in the payment to the Sháh by the Mírs of 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000), and 50,000 rupees (£5000) for his officers of State, while 500 camels were made over for the king's use. The Sháh subsequently marched on his expedition against Kandahár, but being defeated by Dost Muhammad, he retreated to Sind and proceeded to Haidarábád, where he obtained sufficient money from the Mírs to enable him to return to Ludhiána, in the Punjab.

In 1843, on the conquest of the Province by the British, all Northern Sind, with the exception of that portion held by the Khairpur Mír, Alí Murád Tálpur, was formed into the Shikárpur Collectorate and the Frontier District. In the previous year (1842), the towns of Sukkur, Bukkur, and Rohri had by treaty been ceded to the British in perpetuity. In 1851, Mír Alí Murád Tálpur of Khairpur was, after a full and public inquiry, convicted of acts of forgery and fraud, in unlawfully retaining certain lands and territories which belonged of right to the British Government. The forgery consisted in his having destroyed a leaf of the Kurán in which the Naunáhar, concluded in 1842 between himself and his brothers, Mírs Nasir and Mubárak Khán, was written, and having substituted for it another leaf, in which the word 'village' was altered to 'district,' by which he fraudulently obtained possession of several large districts instead of villages of the same name. On 1st January 1852, the Governor-General of India (Marquis Dalhousie) issued a proclamation depriving the Mír of the districts wrongfully retained, and degrading him from the rank of *Rais* (or Lord Paramount). Of the districts so confiscated, Ubauro, Búldika, Mírpur, Saidábád, and other parts of Upper Sind on the left bank of the Indus, now forming the greater part of the Rohri Subdivision, were added to the Shikárpur Collectorate.

Population.—The population of Shikárpur District, according to the

Census of 1872, numbered 776,227, thus distributed:—Rohri Subdivision, with 354 villages, 217,515; Shikárpur and Sukkur, with 268 villages, 181,832; Lárkhána, with 494 villages, 234,575; and Mehar, with 343 villages, 142,305—total, 1459 villages and 776,227 inhabitants. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 8813 square miles; density of population, 88 per square mile.

Administration.—The total revenue of Shikárpur District in 1873-74 amounted to £211,776, of which £190,630 was derived from imperial and £21,146 from local sources. The land tax, canal revenue, excise, stamps, and forests furnish the principal items. Shikárpur is administered by a Collector-Magistrate with Assistants; the Civil and Sessions Judge has his headquarters at Shikárpur town. The police force numbers 1131 officers and men, showing 1 policeman to every 9 square miles of area and to every 686 of the population. Schools (1873-74), 86, with 5881 pupils.

Shikárpur.—*Táluk* of the Sukkur (Sakhar) and Shikárpur Sub-District, Shikárpur, Sind. Area, 472 square miles; pop. (1872), 73,383; total revenue (1873-74), £14,235.

Shikárpur.—Chief town and municipality of Shikárpur District, Upper Sind. Lat. 27° 57′ 14″ N., long. 68° 40′ 26″ E.; connected by good roads with Jacobábád, from which it is distant 26 miles south-east, with Sukkur (Sakhar) 22 miles north-west, and Lárkhána 40 miles north-east. Situated in a tract of low-lying country, annually flooded by canals from the Indus, the nearest point of which river is 18 miles west. The elevation of the town is only 194 feet above sea level. Two branches of the Sind Canal—the Chota Begári and the Ráiswah—flow on either side of the town, the former to the south, and the latter to the north. The soil in the immediate vicinity is very rich, and produces heavy crops of grain and fruit. The population (1872) numbers 38,107, of whom 14,908 are Muhammadans, 23,167 Hindus, 28 Christians, and 4 'others.' Shikárpur is the headquarters of the principal Government officials of the District, and contains the usual public buildings. The total number of police is 71. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £9105. The Municipal Act was brought into force in 1855, since which year great sanitary improvements have been effected. Before that time, Shikárpur was notorious for its unsightly appearance. The Stewartganj Market (so called after a popular District officer) is a continuation of the old *bázár*, and is a commodious structure. To the east of the town are three large tanks, known as Sarwar Khán's, the Gillespie, and the Hazári tank. The climate is hot and dry; the rainfall for the twelve years 1862-1874 averaged only 5·15 inches. The trade of Shikárpur has long been famous, both under native and British rule, but it is the transit traffic which seems to be of the most importance. The town is situated on

one of the great routes from Sind to Khorasán *viâ* the Bolán Pass, and its commerce in 1841 was thus described by Postans :—'Shikárpur receives from Karáchi, Márwár, Múltán (Mooltan), Baháwalpur, Khairpur, and Ludhiána—European piece-goods, raw silk, ivory, cochineal, spices of sorts, coarse cotton cloth, *kinkhabs*, manufactured silk, sugar-candy, cocoa-nuts, metals, *kirami* (groceries), drugs of sorts, indigo and other dyes, opium and saffron; from Kachhi, Khorasán, and the north-west —raw silk (Turkestán), various kinds of fruit, madder, turquoises, antimony, medical herbs, sulphur, alum, saffron, assafœtida, gums, cochineal, and horses. The exports from Shikárpur are confined to the transmission of goods to Khorasán through the Bolán Pass, and a tolerable trade with Kachhi (Bágh, Gandáva, Kotri, and Dadar). They consist of indigo (the most important), henna, metals of all kinds, country coarse and fine cloths, European piece-goods (chintzes, etc.), Múltáni coarse cloth, silks (manufactured), groceries and spices, raw cotton, coarse sugar, opium, hemp-seed, shields, embroidered horse-cloths, and dry grains. The revenue of Shikárpur derivable from trade amounted in 1840 to Rs. 54,736 (or say £5473), and other taxes and revenue from lands belonging to the town, Rs. 16,645 (or say £1664), making a total of Rs. 71,381 (or say £7138), which is divided among the Khairpur and Haidarábád Tálpur Mírs in the proportion of three-sevenths and four-sevenths respectively.' Shikárpur is still the great centre of commerce in Upper Sind; although the town of Sukkur is believed to have drawn away much of its former trade with the Punjab, and the construction of a branch line of railway from that place to the entrance of the Bolán Pass will probably still further reduce its prosperity. In 1874, the imports of Shikárpur were valued at £264,190; the exports, £64,485. The principal manufactures are carpets and coarse cotton cloth. In the Government Jail, *postins* or sheepskin coats, baskets, reed chairs covered with leather, carpets, tents, shoes, etc. are made by the prisoners. From Shikárpur there are three postal routes, viz. to Jacobábád, to Sukkur, and southwards to Lárkhána and Mehar. The town contains a normal and several vernacular schools, together with a high school, attended by 135 pupils. There are 8 Hindu-Sindi schools, with 1031 pupils; 3 schools for girls, with 128 pupils.

Shikárpur.—Flourishing town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 17′ N., and long. 78° 3′ 15″ E., on the Rámghát road, 13 miles south-east of Bulandshahr town. Pop. (1872), 11,150, consisting of 6227 Hindus and 4923 Muhammadans. Substantial, well-built houses, and handsome mosques. Great walled *sarái* (native inn), about 200 years old, through which the high-road passes. Founded about 1500 A.D. by Sikandar Lodí, as a hunting-lodge on a large scale, whence the town derives its name. Ancient mound,

known as the Tálpat Nagari, near the city. About 500 yards north stands a remarkable building, called *Bára Khamba*, or the Twelve Columns, containing 12 huge red-sandstone pillars, so massive that popular imagination attributes their erection to demons; but inscriptions show that the building really represents an unfinished tomb begun by Sayyid Fazl-ullá, son-in-law of the Emperor Farrukhsiyyár, about the year 1718. Ruins of an old fort are traceable in the town. Residence of Chaudhri Lakshman Sinh, an Honorary Magistrate, who was conspicuous for his loyalty during the Mutiny of 1857.

Shikárpur.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore. Area, 410 square miles, of which only 32 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 63,210, of whom 59,125 are Hindus, 4032 Muhammadans, 48 Jains, and 5 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £14,231, or 14s. 2d. per cultivated acre. Greatly overgrown with jungle, which gives shelter to many wild beasts. The most important crop and article of export is sugar-cane.

Shikárpur.—Municipal village in Shimoga District, Mysore; situated in lat. 14° 15′ 40″ N., and long. 75° 23′ 30″ E., near the right bank of the Choradi river, 28 miles north-west of Shimoga town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 2093; municipal revenue (1874-75), £292; rate of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head. Said to have been originally called Maliyán-halli, and subsequently Mahádanpur. The present name was given in the time of Haidar Alí, on account of the abundance of game found in the neighbourhood. The old fort is now in ruins. A festival held for three days in April is annually attended by 8000 persons. Weekly fair on Saturdays.

Shikohábád.—South-western *tahsíl* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of an almost level plain, intersected by undulating sandhills, and much cut up by ravines along its southern border, where it abuts upon the river Jumna (Jamuná). The Sírsa river flows through the midst of the *tahsíl*, and the East Indian Railway traverses it from end to end. Area, 293 square miles, of which 200 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 143,869; land revenue, £25,191; total Government revenue, £27,721; rental paid by cultivators, £41,416.

Shikohábád.—Town in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1872), 10,069, consisting of 5366 Hindus and 4703 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 27° 6′ 5″ N., and long. 78° 38′ 10″ E., on the Agra road, nearly 2 miles from Shikohábád station, on the East Indian Railway, and 34 miles west of Máinpuri town. The old town, a large straggling collection of houses, lies east and south of the main road; but the principal *bázár* lines the highway itself, and contains 9 *saráis* (native inns) for the accommodation of travellers. Ancient mound, once the site of a fort, now covered by

houses. Numerous temples and mosques. Birthplace of several Hindu and Musalmán saints. Handsome *tahsíli*, police station, post office, school; telegraph office at railway station. Named after Prince Dára Shikoh, traces of whose residence, garden, and wells still remain. The British obtained possession of Shikohábád in 1801, and established a cantonment south of the town. In 1802, a Marhattá force under Fleury surprised the British detachment; after which the cantonment was removed to Máinpuri. Formerly a great emporium for raw cotton, but the trade has declined. Manufacture of sweetmeats and cotton cloth.

Shillong.—Chief town of the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, and administrative headquarters of the Chief Commissioner of Assam; situated in lat. 25° 32′ 39″ N., and long. 91° 55′ 32″ E., on a tableland 4900 feet above sea level, and 67 miles south by road from Gauháti (Gowhatty). The Census of 1872, taken before Shillong became the seat of the local government, shows a population of only 1363 inhabitants. Shillong first became the civil station of the Khási and Jáintia Hills in 1864, in substitution for Cherra Poonjee. In 1874, on the constitution of the Chief Commissionership of Assam, it was chosen as the headquarters of the new administration, on account both of its salubrity and its convenient position between the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys. The Chief Commissioner permanently resides here, and also the heads of all the departments of Government. A considerable native population is already settled, which increases from year to year. Large sums of money have been expended on the erection of public buildings. A printing press has been established, from which issue all the official documents and reports of the Province. A church has been built, at which a chaplain officiates alternately with Gauháti. The nominal area of the station is 7 miles in length by 1½ mile broad. An excellent water supply has been introduced through an aqueduct, which has its source in the neighbouring hill streams. Sanitary measures are stringently enforced. The cart-road from Gauháti, the old capital of Assam, on the Brahmaputra, was opened for traffic in 1877. The entire distance of 67 miles is accomplished by *tonga dák* in about two days; and the sanatorium is thus rendered easily accessible from the fever-stricken plains of the Brahmaputra valley. The gradients on this road are a model of engineering skill. In 1875, the cantonments at Shillong were occupied by the 43d Regiment of Assam Light Infantry, with a total strength of 935 men. A large weekly market is held in the *bázár*. The model farm established in the neighbourhood in 1873 has not proved successful, either from a financial or an agricultural point of view. (See *The Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. p. 229.) The climate of Shillong is singularly mild and equable. A temperature higher than 80° F. is seldom recorded. Hoar-frost lies upon the ground almost every morning during the months of December, January, and February.

Shallow water occasionally freezes over, but snow never falls. Fires are necessary during the great part of the year, the fuel used being coal, obtained at great cost from the beds at Máo-beh-lyrkar. The price is about £3 per ton. The rainfall registered during the three years ending in 1876 averaged 83·65 inches a year. The prevailing diseases are dysentery, bowel complaints, and disorders of the liver; but when once European residents have passed through a short period of acclimatizing indisposition, they generally enjoy excellent health.

Shillong.—Mountain range in the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, Assam, overlooking the station of the same name. The highest peak (lat. 25° 34′ 18″ N., long. 91° 55′ 43″ E.) attains a height of 6449 feet above the sea, being the most elevated point in the entire District. The crown of the ridge is covered with sacred groves of large timber-trees.

Shimoga.—A District forming the north-western portion of the Nagar Division of Mysore, lying between 13° 30′ and 14° 38′ N. lat., and between 74° 44′ and 76° 5′ E. long. Estimated area, 3797 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 498,976 souls. Bounded along the north and west by the Districts of Dhárwár and North Kánara, in the Bombay Presidency. The administrative headquarters are at SHIMOGA TOWN, on the left bank of the Tunga river, just above its junction with the Bhadra.

Physical Aspects.—The District constitutes part of the principal watershed of Southern India. The river system is twofold—the rivers in the east, the Tunga, the Bhadra, and the Varada uniting to form the Tungabhadra, which ultimately falls into the Kistna, and so into the Bay of Bengal; while in the west, a few minor streams break through the barrier of the Western Gháts and reach the Kánara coast. The whole region is covered with hills and valleys, but it naturally divides into two distinct portions. The larger half, towards the west, known as the Malnád or hill country, gradually rises towards the Western Gháts, where isolated peaks attain a height of more than 4000 feet above sea level. The general elevation of the District is about 2000 feet; and towards the east it opens out into the Maidán or plain country, which forms part of the general plateau of Mysore. The Malnád presents a wealth of picturesque scenery and wild life. A park of giant timber-trees, overgrown with brilliant creepers, extends continuously for miles, only interrupted by glades of verdant grass; the towering mountains form a precipitous background; and wild animals of all kinds abound. Near the north-western frontier of the District, the Shirávati river bursts through the Western Gháts by the celebrated Falls of Gersoppa, which surpass any other waterfall in India, and, in the combined attributes of height, volume of water, and picturesque situation, have few rivals in the world. The river here is 250 yards wide, and throws itself over a

chasm 960 feet in depth in four distinct falls, one of which has an unbroken descent of 830 feet.

The mineral products include iron-ore, and laterite for building Magnetic stones, occasionally found on the summits of the Gháts, are highly prized. In the valleys of the Malnád, the soil is a loose, sandy loam, very suitable for rice; in the north-east appears the black cotton-soil. The wealth of timber in the Malnád remains as yet unproductive, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country. The more valuable trees include *pún*, wild jack, ebony, *som*, the large *devadáram*, gamboge, and a species of cedar. In the centre of the District are found teak, sandal-wood, the areca, cocoa-nut and sago palms, bamboo, cardamoms, and the pepper vine. Farther to the east, large trees altogether disappear. An area of about 35 square miles has been reserved by the Forest Department, including a teak plantation; and trees in avenues are planted along the public roads. Among wild animals, bison are especially numerous in the *táluk* of Ságar, where wild elephants are also occasionally seen. Tigers, leopards, bears, wild hog, *sámbhar* and *chitál* deer, and jungle sheep are common in the wooded tracts.

History.—The present area of Shimoga District has supplied more than one important city to Southern India. The oldest memorials are three copper plates, purporting to be land-grants of Janamejáya, the monarch to whom the *Mahábhárata* was recited. Considerable doubt has been thrown upon the genuineness of these inscriptions; and the dates to which they have been referred belong to epic legend rather than to history. Janamejáya is assigned to 1300 B.C. One of the plates bears the date 89 of the Yudishthira era, which would be equivalent to 3012 B.C., according to Mr. Lewis Rice.

Local history commences with the Kadambas, whose capital was at Banavasi, on the north-western frontier of this District, and whose dominions extended over great part of Kánara and Mysore. Banavasi is identified as one of the spots visited by a Buddhist missionary in 245 B.C., and as mentioned by the Greek geographer Ptolemy in the 2nd century A.D. In the 6th century, the Kadambas were overthrown by the Chalukya kings, under whom they long continued to govern as feudatories; and at about the same time a petty Jain kingdom was established at Humcha. The Chalukyas were in their turn expelled by the Kalachuryas, under whose protection the Lingáyat religion became predominant in Kánara. Shimoga District subsequently was included within the dominions of the Ballalas and the kings of Vijayanagar, who were successively suzerains over all Southern India. At the time of the decadence of the latter empire, many local chiefs or *pálegárs* succeeded in asserting their independence, among whom the Keladi and the Basvapatna families divided between them the area of this District. The Keladi family, who were Lingáyats, first established themselves at

Ikkeri about 1560, and subsequently transferred their residence to Bednúr, better known by the honorific appellation of Nagar. At one time they attained great power; but they were finally conquered by Haidar Alí in 1763, when their territory was annexed to Mysore. The Basvapatna chiefs were a less influential family, whose capital was at Tarikere, in the adjoining District of Kádúr. They also fell before the organized empire of Haidar Alí in 1761. After the death of Tipú, and the re-establishment of the old Hindu dynasty of Mysore in 1799, Shimoga District repeatedly became the scene of disturbances, caused by the mal-administration of the Deshasta Bráhmans, who had seized on the offices of government, and made themselves obnoxious to both the Lingáyats and the cultivators. These disturbances culminated in the rebellion of 1830, led by representatives of the old Keladi and Basvapatna families, which occasioned the direct assumption of the administration of the entire State by the British.

Population.—In 1838, a Report by Mr. Stokes estimated the population of the District to be 304,120 souls; and a *khána sumári* or house enumeration, in 1853-54, returned a total of 427,179. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 498,976, showing an increase of 64 per cent. in the interval of thirty-three years, and nearly 17 per cent. in the later period of eighteen years, if the earlier estimates can be trusted. This last-mentioned rate of increase is lower than in any other District of Mysore. The area of the District is approximately taken at 3797 square miles, which yields an average of 131·4 persons per square mile, an average rising to 247 in the *táluk* of Soráb. Classified according to sex, there are 258,446 males and 240,530 females; proportion of males, 51·79 per cent. There are, under 12 years of age, 88,179 boys and 85,045 girls; total, 173,224, or 35 per cent. of the District population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that 133,112 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 22,307 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 468,294, or 93·85 per cent.; Muhammadans, 25,598, or 5·13 per cent.; Jains, 4099, or 0·82 per cent.; Christians, 984, or 0·19 per cent.; and 1 Pársí. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into 183,853 worshippers of Vishnu and 284,441 worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 26,569, of whom the great majority belong to the Smarta sect; those claiming the rank of Kshattriyas are returned at 14,720, including 11,558 Marhattás and 1355 Rájputs; the Vaisyas are poorly represented by only 1098 persons, almost all Komatis. Of inferior castes, the most numerous are Wokligas (56,584), who are agricultural labourers; Idigas (49,987), whose caste occupation is that of toddy-drawers; and Sádars (44,881), of whom many are also cultivators. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this

part of the country, number 52,701. Out-castes are returned at 60,358; wandering tribes, 18,001; wild tribes, 5558. The Musalmáns, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Shimoga, are mostly all described as Deccani Musalmáns of the Sunni sect. Out of the total of 984 Christians, 34 are Europeans and 35 Eurasians (chiefly residing on the coffee-plantations), leaving 915 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, 118 are Protestants and 866 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 2829 populated towns and villages, with 2406 houses of the better class (or above £50 in value), and 88,526 of the inferior sort. Compared with the area and population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 0·75; houses per square mile, 24; persons per village, 176; persons per house, 5·49. The only place in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants is SHIMOGA TOWN, the headquarters of the District, on the Tunga river; pop. (1871), 11,034. Its prosperity dates from the introduction of British rule. There are many sites of ruined cities in the District, which have been already alluded to. The chief are—Nagar or Bednúr, Ikkeri, and Keladi, all associated with a family of Lingáyat *pálegárs;* Basvapatna, the early residence of the Tarikere chiefs; the Jain ruins of Humcha; and Banavasi, with its Buddhist memorials. The most important modern towns, after Shimoga itself, are Chennagiri and Ságar. There are altogether eight municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal income, in 1874-75, of £4531.

Agriculture.—The staple food crop of the District is rice, which is especially cultivated in the terraced valleys of the Malnád or hill country. The names of 60 different varieties are enumerated. The crop is sown from April to July, and reaped from November to February. In some tracts the cultivation of 'dry crops' predominates. Of these, *rágí* (Eleusine coracana) is preferred by the natives for their own food, while rice is largely exported. Next to rice, the most important crop is sugar-cane, which is largely grown in the *táluk* of Shikárpur. The canes are planted from January to June, and gathered after a full twelve months. The juice is for the most part converted into jaggery. The tract about Nagar produces the finest areca-nuts in Mysore. Miscellaneous crops include oil-seeds, a great variety of vegetables and fruits, pepper, and cardamoms. The coffee zone of the District is estimated to extend over 1000 square miles, but a considerable portion of this area is not of the most favourable character. There are altogether 250 plantations, of which 6 are owned by Europeans. In 1861, an unsuccessful attempt was made to improve the indigenous production of cotton, by the distribution of American seed. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Out of the total area of 3797 square miles, only 699 are returned as under cultivation, and 702 as cultivable. The area under rice is 135,000 acres, with an out-turn

valued at £250,000; other food grains, 925,000 acres, with an out-turn of *rágí* valued at £127,000; cotton, 10,500 acres; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 18,000; coffee, 5000; sugar-cane, 2500 acres. The agricultural stock consists of 12,113 carts and 71,853 ploughs. Irrigation is carried on both from tanks and from channels artificially drawn from the rivers by means of anicuts or weirs. The total number of tanks is 8313, including the great reservoir of Sulekere, in the *táluk* of Chennagiri, which is 40 miles in circumference, and ranks as the second largest in Southern India. In this same neighbourhood are to be found the best cattle in the District; and there are several grazing-grounds for the *amrita mahál*, or royal breed maintained by the State. Buffaloes are largely used for agricultural purposes, and pack-bullocks are bred to carry the through traffic across the Gháts. The returns show a total of 385,216 cows and bullocks, and 44,399 sheep and goats.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief industries in the District are the weaving of coarse cotton-cloth and rough country blankets or *kamblis*, and the making of iron implements, brass-ware, pottery, and jaggery from the sugar-cane. Oil is expressed from a great variety of vegetable products. At certain localities are special manufactures of striped carpets, chintz, coarse brown paper, stone jugs, and rope from various fibres. The carving of sandal-wood constitutes a speciality of the *gúdigárs* of Soráb, whose delicate and elaborate workmanship is considered superior to that of either Bombay or Canton. The chief articles turned out are caskets and cabinets, ornamented either with leaves and figures from the Hindu pantheon, or with a copy of any design that may be ordered. Carving of inferior merit is also produced in other villages of Shimoga. The manufacturing stock of the District is returned at 1700 looms, and 112 oil-mills. The trade of Shimoga is conducted with both the east and west coasts, and also with Bangalore. The chief exports are rice and other food grains, jaggery from the sugar-cane, areca-nuts, coffee, pepper, and iron articles. The imports received in exchange are European piece-goods, copper vessels, oils of various kinds, tobacco, betel-leaf, and gold and silver ornaments. There are four passes across the Western Gháts, of which the two most important leave the District near the Falls of Gersoppa and at the town of Agumbi. The local trade is mostly in the hands of the Lingáyats, whose centres of operation are at Ságar, Tirthahalli, and Nyampti. There are five weekly fairs, each attended by more than 1000 people; and several annual religious festivals, at which much buying and selling is done. There is no railroad in the District. The aggregate length of imperial roads is 225 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3425; of District roads, 171 miles, costing £971.

Administration.—In 1873-74, the total revenue of Shimoga District, excluding education and public works, amounted to £189,918. The

chief items were land revenue, £111,454; *sáyar* or customs, £38,518; forests, £21,612. The District is subdivided into 8 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 43 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the total number of estates on the register was 61,637. During the year 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 426·99; and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 15·33: total, 442·32, of whom 35·93 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 1129 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 58 officers and 408 men; and the municipal police, 1 officer and 33 men: total, 500 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £4094. These figures show 1 policeman to every 8 square miles of area or to every 998 of the population; the cost being £1, 1s. 7d. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 146, attended by 3465 pupils, being 1 school to every 26 square miles, and 6·9 pupils to every 1000 of the population. In addition, there were 80 indigenous schools, with 1009 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Shimoga District offers a great variety of climate. The Gháts on the western frontier are only 8 miles distant from the sea; and here the south-west monsoon strikes with its full force, bringing a rainfall of more than 150 inches in the year. But the District stretches from the Gháts for about 100 miles towards the central tableland of Southern India; and the rainfall gradually diminishes, until it only amounts to about 25 inches at Chennagiri, most of which falls in October during the north-east monsoon. The sea-breeze from the west is distinctly felt as far as Shimoga town. During the two years 1873 and 1874, the maximum temperature registered was 92° F. in the month of April, and the minimum 75° in December. The average rainfall at Shimoga town, calculated over a period of thirty-eight years, is 30·35 inches; but as much as 170 inches has been known to fall within the year at Nagar.

Malarious fever of a persistent type prevails in the Malnád or hill country; and the natives appear to be even more exposed to its attacks than Europeans, when once the latter have become acclimatized. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that, out of the total of 7164 deaths reported in 1872, 3806 were assigned to fevers, 1276 to bowel complaints, 503 to small-pox, 32 to snake-bite or wild beasts, and 25 to suicide. In 1874, the dispensary at Shimoga town was attended by 237 in-patients, of whom 21, or 88·61 per 1000, died; the out-patients numbered 8393.

Shimoga.—*Táluk* in the District of the same name, Mysore. Area, 533 square miles, of which 147 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 79,031, of whom 69,936 were Hindus, 8433 Muhammadans, 78 Jains, and 584 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates

£10,023, or 2s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. The west and south is hilly and overgrown with jungle, which gives shelter to many wild beasts.

Shimoga (*Shiva-mukha*, 'face of Siva,' or *Shi-moge*, 'sweet-pot').—Chief town of the District, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 36′ 5″ E., on the right bank of the Tunga river, 171 miles by road north-west from Bangalore. Pop. (1871), 11,034, of whom 7659 are Hindus, 2801 Muhammadans, 51 Jains, and 523 Christians. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £2440; rate of taxation, 4s. 5d. per head. The early history is unknown. In 1791, a battle was fought in the neighbourhood, in which the Marhattás defeated a general of Tipú Sultán, and sacked the town. Its growth in wealth and prosperity dates from the time when it was made the headquarters of the District and of the Nagar Division. A weekly fair, held on Tuesdays, is attended by 1500 persons.

Shimshupa.—River in Túmkúr District, Mysore.—*See* SHAMSHA.

Shingnapur.—Municipal town in Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 51′ 20″ N., and long. 74° 42′ 6″ E., 46 miles east-by-north of Sátára. Pop. (1876), 1506. Municipal revenue, £293.

Shinor.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 6006.

Shiorájpur.—*Tahsíl* in Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south-west bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the Ganges Canal. Area, 268 square miles, of which 148 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 141,842. Land revenue, £27,537; total Government revenue, £30,289; rental paid by cultivators, £43,814.

Shirálí.—Port on the south-western coast of North Kánara District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £190; exports, £1370.

Shiroda. — One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £90; of which £12 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Shirol.—Town in Kolhápur State, Bombay. Lat. 16° 44′ 10″ N., long. 74° 38′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 8247.

Shirpur.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay.—*See* SHERPUR.

Shivagangá.—*Zamíndárí* and town in Madura District, Madras.—*See* SIVAGANGA.

Shivagangá.—Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore.—*See* SIVAGANGA.

Shivner.—Hill fort in Poona District, Bombay; situated not far from the Harischandragarh, and near the fort of Junnar. Shivner is interesting as having been the birthplace of Sivají the Great. It was granted in 1599 to Sivají's grandfather, Málojí Bhonslá; and here, in 1627, Sivají was born. It was often taken and retaken; and once, in 1670, the forces of Sivají himself were beaten back by its

Mughal garrison. Besides its five gates and solid fortifications, it is celebrated for its deep springs. They rise in pillared tanks of great depth, supposed by Dr. Gibson to be coeval with the series of Buddhist caves which pierce the lower portion of the scarp. The fort commands the road leading to the Náneghát and Málsejghát, formerly the chief line of communication between this part of the Deccan and the sea-coast.

Sholágarh.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 33′ 45″ N., long. 90° 20′ E.; pop. (1872), 6525.

Sholangipuram.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras.—*See* SHOLINGHAR.

Sholápur.—A British District in the Deccan, Bombay, lying between 17° 13′ and 18° 35′ N. lat., and between 74° 39′ and 76° 11′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878-79, 3925 square miles; population in 1872, 662,986 souls. It is bounded on the north by Ahmednagar District, on the east by the Nizám's Dominions and Akalkot State, on the south by Kaládgi District and some of the Patwardhan States, and on the west by Sátára and Poona Districts and the States of Phaltan and Panth Pratinidhi. Bársi, in the north-east, is separated from the main District by a strip of the Nizám's territory; and on the west, in some places Patwardhan villages are included, and in others isolated Sholápur villages lie beyond the District limits. The administrative headquarters are at the city of SHOLAPUR.

Physical Aspects.—Except the Karmála and Bársi Subdivisions, where there is a good deal of hilly ground, the District is generally flat or undulating. It is very bare of vegetation, and presents everywhere a bleak, treeless appearance. The chief rivers are the Bhíma (Bheema) and its tributaries, the Mán, the Níra, and the Sína, all flowing towards the south-east. Besides these, there are several minor streams. Of the principal reservoirs, Ekrúk and Siddheswar are near Sholápur city, one is at Koregáon, and one at Pandharpur. Wells also to some extent supply water for gardening and drinking purposes. The rainfall being very uncertain, a scarcity of water is annually felt during the hot weather. Stunted *bábuls* and mangoes, and a few *níms* (Azadirachta indica) and *pípals* (Ficus religiosa), are the only timber-trees found in the District. As these afford no cover, the District is without wild animals of the larger kinds.

History.—Sholápur is one of the Districts which formed the early home of the Marhattás, and the birthplace of the dynasty. It is still a great centre of Marhattá population and mercantile activity. As full an account of the rise and progress of the Marhattá power as is consistent with the scope of this work will be found in the article on POONA DISTRICT, and further local details are given in the notice of the adjacent District of SATARA. An excellent monograph has been written on these three Districts by W. W. Loch, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service.

Sholápur formed part of the Peshwá's dominions, until the downfall of his dynasty in 1818, and the incorporation of his territories by the East India Company in the Bombay Presidency. This District was at first included with that of Poona, but was erected into a separate Collectorate in 1838. Since then its progress has been rapid. Roads have been constructed, and the District is now traversed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. From time to time its prosperity receives checks owing to drought, to which its situation and the treeless surface of the country expose it. It suffered especially in the famine of 1877, when it was the first District to manifest distress in the Bombay Presidency. Extensive relief works were at once opened, and every possible means were taken to avert the starvation of the people. Much has been done by means of tanks to protect the husbandman from the cruel vicissitudes of the seasons; but the situation and physical characteristics of Sholápur will always render it liable to the natural calamities arising from drought.

Population.—The Census of 1872 was taken on an area of 3925 square miles, and showed a total population of 662,986 persons, living in 649 towns and villages and 109,826 houses. Density of population, 168·91 per square mile; square miles per village, 5·88; houses per square mile, 27·98; persons per village, 1021·55; persons per house, 6·04. Classified according to sex, there were 341,230 males and 321,756 females; proportion of males, 51·46 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 123,601, and females, 113,603; total children, 237,204, or 35·77 per cent.: above 12 years—males, 217,629, and females, 208,153; total adults, 425,782, or 64·23 per cent. Classified according to religion, 613,856, or 92·58 per cent., were returned as Hindus; 48,740, or 7·35 per cent., Musalmáns; 319 Christians; 62 Pársís; and 9 'others.' Of Hindus, the chief classes are Bráhmans, Kunbís, and Lingáyats. Bráhmans are employed as priests and Government servants; the Kunbís are, for the most part, peasants; and the Lingáyats are traders, shopkeepers, and weavers.

Agriculture.—Black soil, rich and capable of retaining moisture, prevails throughout the Bársi Subdivision, and, to some extent, along the banks of rivers and water-courses in all parts of the District. In other places there is a large proportion of grey, *barad*, and red soil, the latter being very poor. Of 2,175,711 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 2,138,788 acres, or 98 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1877-78. Of these, 478,068 acres were fallow, or under grass. Of the remaining 1,660,720 acres under actual cultivation (17,964 acres of which were twice cropped), grain occupied 1,387,697 acres, or 83 per cent., more than three-fourths of which were under *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), the staple food of the people; pulses covered 124,064 acres,

or 7 per cent.; oil-seeds occupied an equal area; fibres were grown on 36,518 acres, or 2 per cent., half of which was under cotton; miscellaneous crops, such as tobacco, sugar-cane, chillies, etc., occupied 16,461 acres, or nearly 1 per cent.

Trade, Communications, etc.—Besides nearly 150 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula line from Poona, entering the District at Pomalvádi in the north-east corner, and crossing in a south-easterly direction towards Gulbarga in the Nizám's Dominions, there are roads from Sholápur city to Pandharpur, Akalkot, Haidarábád (Hyderábád), and Bársi; from Pandharpur to Sátára and Karád; from Bársi road station to Tembhurni on one side, and to Bársi on the other, and thence to the Yedsi Pass; and, lastly, from Jeúr station to Karmála.

Since the opening of the railway in that portion of the District between the Nizám's Dominions and Poona, trade has greatly increased. Next to cotton, a large proportion of which comes from without, the chief exports are oil, oil-seeds, butter, turmeric, and cotton cloth. The imports are salt, piece-goods, yarn, gunny-bags, and iron-ware.

After agriculture, the chief industries of the District are spinning, weaving, and dyeing. The silks and finer sorts of cotton cloth—such as *dhotís* and women's robes—prepared in Sholápur bear a good name. Blankets are also woven in large numbers. Besides hand-loom weaving, a steam spinning and weaving mill, with 20,336 spindles and 170 looms, has lately been established at Sholápur city. Oil-presses of the native type are worked by Telís in many places, and saltpetre is manufactured to some extent by Mhars and Mángs.

Administration.—The total revenue raised in 1877 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £239,463, showing, on a population of 662,986, an incidence per head of 6s. 6d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £191,077, or 78 per cent. of the total amount. The other chief items are stamps, excise, and local funds. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded in 1877 a total of £7361. There are 8 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 112,667 persons. Their receipts amounted to £13,706, and the incidence of taxation varied from 3⅝d. to 4s. 2¼d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 4 Assistant Collectors, three of whom are covenanted civilians. The District is provided with the court of a senior Assistant Judge. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are in all, besides this, 4 courts. The number of suits disposed of in 1874 amounted to 5597. Seventeen officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police force for the protection of person and property consisted of 97 officers and 442 constables, giving 1 man to every 1230 of the population. The total cost was £8722, equal to

£1, 18s. per square mile of area and $3\frac{1}{8}$d. per head of population. The number of convicted persons was 4817, being 1 person to every 137 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Compared with 45 schools and 516 pupils in 1865, there were, in 1877, 115 schools, with a roll-call of 4648 names, or, on an average, 1 school for every 5 villages. Two vernacular papers were published in 1877-78.

Medical Aspects.—The climate, except from March to May, is healthy and agreeable. In the hot season, the mean temperature is 86° F., very hot and oppressive in the day-time, but cool at night. The rainy season is pleasant: the sky is more or less overcast, and the rain falls in heavy showers, alternating with intervals of sunshine. The rainfall, which during the last twenty-six years varied from 18 to 40 inches, and averaged 26 inches, is unequally distributed, the fall in the western Subdivisions being very scanty compared with that in the east. During the cold season, from November to February, the atmosphere, with keen easterly and north-easterly winds, is clear and bracing.

Besides fever of an intermittent type, skin diseases such as guinea-worm, itch, and ringworm are prevalent in the Bársi and Karmála Subdivisions, brought on chiefly by the badness of the well water. Fever makes its appearance at the end of the rainy season, and is due in a great measure to the sudden change of climate. Cholera used every year to break out at Pandharpur during the periodical fairs; but improved sanitary arrangements have to some extent put a stop to this.

In 1877, 4 dispensaries and the civil hospital at Sholápur afforded medical relief to 1038 in-door and 31,573 out-door patients, and 13,898 persons were vaccinated.

Sholápur.—Chief town of Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 40′ 18″ N., and long. 75° 56′ 38″ E., on the plain of the Sína, 150 miles by rail from Poona. Area, $7\frac{3}{4}$ square miles; pop. (1872), 53,403. The small but strongly built fort in the south-west corner of the town, surrounded by a ditch, is ascribed to Hassan Gangu, the founder of the Báhmani dynasty (1345). On the dissolution of that kingdom in 1489, Sholápur was held by Zein Khán. But during the minority of his son it was, in the year 1511, besieged and taken by Kamál Khán, who annexed it, with the surrounding Districts, to the Bijápur kingdom. In 1523, Sholápur formed part of the dowry of Ismáil Adíl Sháh's sister, given in marriage to the King of Ahmednagar. But not being handed over to the Ahmednagar kingdom, it formed for forty years a source of constant quarrels between the two dynasties, until it was given back to Bijápur as the dowry of the Ahmednagar princess Chánd Bíbí (1563). On the overthrow of the Bijápur kingdom (1686), Sholápur fell to the Mughals, from whom it was taken by the Marhattás. At the close of the war with the Peshwá in 1818, it was stormed by General Munro. Since then, the town, no longer exposed to the raids of highway robbers, has been

steadily increasing in importance. Its convenient situation between Poona and Haidarábád has made it, especially since the opening of the railway in 1859, the centre for the collection and distribution of goods over a large extent of country. The chief industry of Sholápur is the manufacture of silk and cotton cloth, more than 5000 persons being engaged as hand-loom weavers, spinners, and dyers. A steam-weaving and spinning-mill has also lately been established in the town.

Besides the courts of the Subdivisional and District revenue officers, there are the senior assistant's and the subordinate judge's courts. The houses are mostly built of mud, but sometimes of stone and burnt bricks, and are covered with flat roofs. On account of the absence of any high ground in the neighbourhood, Sholápur is on all sides exposed to the winds. The climate, except during the months of March, April, and May, is agreeable and healthy. The municipality, established in 1853, enjoys an average revenue of £5061; the incidence of taxation amounting to 1s. 9d. per head of the population.

Sholavandán.—Town in Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 2′ E., 12 miles from Madura city, on the Vaigai river. Pop. (1871), 2970, inhabiting 525 houses. The town was built in 1566 by a colony of Vallálars, relatives of the Vijayanagar Governor of the South. The fort commanded a pass on the main road from Dindigul to Madura, and was occupied by Muhammad Yusaf in 1757, to cover the operations of Calliaud against Madura. In the same year, it was captured by Haidar Alí, and retaken by the British.

Sholinghar (*Sholangipuram*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 13° 7′ N., long. 79° 29′ E.; pop. (1871), 4956, residing in 759 houses. A station on the Madras Railway. The scene of one of Coote's greatest victories in 1781, when, for the third time within a few months, acting on the offensive, with vastly inferior numbers, he drove Haidar Alí's picked troops before him. There is a famous temple here, perched on a high rock, which is much frequented by pilgrims.

Shorápur.—Formerly a tributary State of the Nizám; situated in the south-west corner of the Haidarábád territory, and since 1860 an integral part of His Highness' Dominions. Bounded on the north by Haidarábád territory, and on the south by the Kistna, which separates it from the Raichúr Doáb. Chief town, Shorápur; lat. 16° 31′ N., long. 76° 48′ E. By the treaty of 1800, the British Government engaged to enforce 'the just claims' of the Nizám against Shorápur. In 1823, the British Government, having succeeded to the rights of the Peshwá, relinquished the tribute due to it from the Shorápur Rájá, on condition of the Rájá abandoning certain *rusúms* (revenue claims) on the neighbouring British Districts. A succession dispute in 1828 commenced a long series of disasters for Shorápur. The State fell into hopeless arrears to its suzerain the Nizám, and in 1841-42 the portion

of it to the south of the Kistna was ceded to His Highness in commutation. A British officer, Captain Gressly, was in the same year deputed to report on the Shorápur State. He was succeeded by Captain Meadows Taylor (1842), into whose hands the practical administration fell, as the sequel of a series of *zanána* intrigues, domestic quarrels, and acts of extravagance by members of the Rájá's family. The improvements effected by Captain Meadows Taylor, and the era of prosperity and order which he introduced at Shorápur, form a brilliant example of the administration of a Native State by a British officer. They are recorded without exaggeration in Meadows Taylor's *Story of My Life*. On his departure in 1853, the affairs of the State began to slip back into their former condition, and the old unsatisfactory relations between Shorápur and the Nizám revived. The Shorápur Rájá threw in his lot with the rebels in the Mutiny of 1857-58, was sentenced to deportation, and shot himself. By the British treaty of 1860 with the Nizám, Shorápur State was ceded to His Highness in full sovereignty, and has since been an integral part of the Nizám's Dominions.

Shorkot.—*Tahsíl* of Jhang District, Punjab.

Shorkot.—Ancient town in Jhang District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 30° 50′ N., and long. 72° 6′ E., among the lowlands of the Chenáb, 36 miles south-west of Jhang town. Pop. (1868), 3153. Stands upon a huge mound of ruins, surrounded by a wall of large antique bricks, and so high as to be visible for 8 miles around. Gold coins are frequently washed out of the ruins after the rains. General Cunningham identifies Shorkot with a town of the Malli attacked and taken by Alexander, and visited by Hiouen Thsang ten centuries later. Local tradition attributes its foundation to one Rájá Shor, of whom only the name is known. General Cunningham infers from the evidence of coins, that the town flourished under the Greek kings of Ariana and the Punjab, as well as under the Indo-Scythian dynasties up to 250 A.D. It was probably destroyed by the White Huns in the 6th century, and reoccupied in the 10th by the Bráhman kings of Kábul and the Punjab. The modern town is a place of little importance.

Shoung-gyo-gún (*Shoung-gyo-goon*).—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3799; gross revenue, £757.

Shrávan-belgolá (lit. '*Tank of the Srávans or Jains*').—Village in Hassan District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 51′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 31′ 31″ E., between two rocky hills called Chandra-betta and Indra-betta. Pop. (1871), 1697,—viz. Hindus, 1231; Muhammadans, 56; and Jains, 410. According to Jain tradition, Bhadra Báhu, one of the six immediate disciples of the founder of their religion, died here while leading a colony from Ujjain into Southern India. He

is said to have been accompanied by the celebrated Emperor Chandragupta, who had abdicated the throne and adopted the life of a hermit. These events, borne out by a rock inscription of great antiquity, are assigned to the 4th century B.C. The grandson of Chandragupta is also related to have visited the spot. On the summit of Chandra-betta stands the colossal statue of Gomateswara, 60 feet high, surrounded by numerous buildings. The hill itself is 3250 feet above sea level. An inscription on the foot of the statue states that it was erected by Chámunda Ráya, whom tradition places about 60 B.C. The surrounding enclosures bear the name of Gangá Ráya, concerning whom even legend is silent. The statue is nude, and stands facing the north. The face has the serene expression usually seen in Buddhist statues; the hair is curled in short spiral ringlets over the head, while the ears are long and large. The figure is treated conventionally, the shoulders being very broad, the arms hanging down the sides with the thumbs turned outwards, the waist small. The feet are placed on the figure of a lotus. Representations of ant-hills rise on either side, with figures of a creeping-plant springing from them, which twines over the thighs and arms, terminating in a tendril with bunches of fruit. These symbolize the complete spiritual abstraction of a *yogi*. According to the most reasonable hypothesis, the statue must have been cut out of a rock which projected above the hill; or perhaps the solid summit of the hill may have been itself cut away. The workmanship is still as sharp as if the stone had been newly quarried. Within the enclosure are 72 small statues of a similar description in compartments. On the face of the opposite rock of Indra-betta are inscriptions cut in ancient characters a foot long. Srávan-belgolá is known to have been an ancient seat of Jain learning, and is still the residence of the chief *gúrú* of that sect; but the establishment was deprived of many of its privileges and emoluments by Tipú Sultán. There is a considerable manufacture of brass utensils, which are exported to distant parts.

Shrígonda.—Town in Ahmednagar District, Bombay.—*See* SRIGONDA.

Shrívardhan.—Town in Janjira State, Bombay.—*See* SRIWARDHAN.

Shujábád.—*Tahsíl* of Múltán District, Punjab. Area (1868), 309 square miles; pop. (1868), 58,889; persons per square mile, 190.

Shujábád.—Municipal town in Múltán District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name; situated in lat. 29° 53′ N., and long. 71° 20′ E., about 3 miles from the present bed of the Chenáb. Pop. (1868), 6095, consisting of 3950 Hindus, 1964 Muhammadans, 27 Síkhs, and 154 'others.' Fort built by Shujá Khán, one of the Nawábs of Múltán under Ahmad Sháh Duráni, in whose time the town possessed some importance. Local trade centre for the richest portion of the District. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office. Municipal

revenue in 1875-76, £656, or 2s. 1d. per head of population (6268) within municipal limits.

Shútar Gardan. — Mountain pass in Afghánistán, dividing the Kurám and Logar valleys. An important position, commanding the road to Kábul, and the possession of which, on the occasion of the retributive campaign after the massacre of Sir Louis Cavagnari in September 1879, enabled General Sir F. Roberts' force to advance on that city and occupy it almost without opposition. The ascent of the pass from the Kurám or Indian side is slight, though the descent into the Logar valley is long and very steep.

Shwe An-daw.—Pagoda in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated a few miles north of Thayet town. It dates from the time of Nara-pad-dí-tsí-thú, King of Burma (about 1167 A.D.), who is noted for his piety, his communication with Ceylon, and his frequent journeys through his dominions. He is said to have received from Ceylon a sacred tooth of Gautama, and while escorting it to his capital, he was warned by signs and portents to deposit it at the place where this pagoda now stands.

Shwe Ban-daw.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 4761; gross revenue, £543. Products—rice, cotton, sesamum, maize, and cutch.

Shwe-Dagon. — The great Pagoda of Rangoon, British Burma, and the most venerated object of worship in all the Indo-Chinese countries. Lat. 16° 46′ 40″ N., long. 96° 13′ 50″ E. The annual festival in March is attended by pilgrims from all parts; and so great is its renown, that the King of Siam, not long ago, had a handsome *zayat* or resting-place built near. The pagoda stands upon a mound partly natural, partly artificial, in the angle formed by the junction of the Rangoon and Pegu rivers. This mound has been cut into two terraces, the upper of which is 166 feet above the level of the ground, and 900 feet long by 685 wide. The southern approach is covered with handsomely carved wooden roofs, supported on massive teak and masonry pillars, and has at its foot two immense griffins, one on each side. From the centre of the platform rises the profusely gilt, solid brick pagoda, springing from an octagonal base, with a perimeter of 1355 feet, and a gradually diminishing spheroidal outline, to a height of 321 feet, and supporting a gilt iron network *htí* or umbrella in the shape of a cone, and surrounded with bells. The space around the pagoda is left free for worshippers; but all round the edge of the platform are numerous idol-houses, facing inwards, containing images of Gautama in the usual sitting posture, and in a previous existence receiving from Dipengara, one of his predecessors, the prophetical annunciation that he too should, after the lapse of four *theng-khye* (a *theng-khye* consists of a unit followed by 140 cyphers), and the creation and destruction of

100,000 worlds, attain to Buddha-hood. Between these idol-houses and the main edifice are several bells, and Ta-khwon-daing or sacred posts, each being surmounted by the figure of a Ḳarawaik (the carrying bird of Vishnu). The bells are struck by the worshippers with deer antlers, left near for that purpose. On the east side is an enormous bell, 7 feet 7½ inches in diameter at the mouth, which was presented by Bhodaw Bhúra. I have mentioned that *theng-kye* is taken to mean a unit followed by 140 cyphers. Strictly speaking, it is a corruption of the Sanskrit *asankhya*, meaning innumerable.

The whole of the early history of this pagoda must be rejected as untrustworthy, but the legend concerning its erection assigns it to the year 588 B.C. The story goes that it was built by two brothers who were guided by a *nát* or spirit into the presence of Gautama, who presented them each with four hairs, and bade them deposit them with certain other relics which had been left by his predecessors on a mountain in Pegu. The guardian of the earth pointed out this peak to the young men, and the sacred gifts were deposited on it under a tree. The first accounts in which any confidence can be placed are those relating to Sheng-tsaw-bú, a queen who ruled early in the 16th century. The pagoda has been several times added to and re-gilt—the last time in 1871, when, with the sanction of the British Government, the King of Burma sent a new *htí* from Mandalay, valued at £62,000. The name Shwe-Dagon is derived from the Talaing word *takún*, meaning 'a tree or log lying athwart,' which has been corrupted in Burmese into Dagon or Dagun. The Burmese word *shwe* means 'golden.' During the first Burmese war in 1825-26, the site of the pagoda was abandoned by the Burmese on the fall of Rangoon, and occupied by British troops till the close of the war. In 1852, during the second war, the Burmese anticipated that the British would attack from the south side, which was accordingly defended. But an entrance was effected by our troops on the east, and the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda fell a second time into the hands of the British. The hill on which it stands has been strongly fortified.

Shwe-doung.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 82 square miles, almost entirely uncultivable waste; pop. (1876-77), 4394; land revenue, £296, and capitation tax, £291. Products—rice, sesamum, cotton, maize, cutch, and vegetables.

Shwe-doung.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 28′ to 18° 50′ N., long. 95° 10′ to 95° 23′ E. Area, 200 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 25,901; land revenue, £2743, and capitation tax, £2835. It comprises 17 revenue circles, each under a *thúgyí*. Bounded by Henzada on the south, and by the Irawadi river on the west. The eastern limit is marked by the low

Toung-gyí Hills, which extend from near Prome town into Tharawadi District, and are covered with *eng* trees, forming a tract called the Eng country. The township consists for the most part of a plain, almost entirely under rice. Tobacco and vegetables are grown along the bank of the Irawadi. In the north-east, below Shwe-doung town, palm-trees are cultivated, and from these are extracted large quantities of *tari*. In the rains, the south-west corner of the township is separated by the Dún-ka-la channel from the Irawadi, and becomes an island. About 5 miles south of Shwe-doung is the Theng-bhyú Lake, supplied by the Irawadi, and 15 feet deep in the rains. The great northern road from Rangoon enters the township through the Eng-daing, and strikes the Irawadi at Shwe-doung, whence it proceeds northwards to Prome. This township contains the Shwe-nat-toung Pagoda, the scene of an annual religious fair.

Shwe-doung.—Chief town of the above township; situated about 8 miles below Prome, on the right bank of the Irawadi, and on the great road from Rangoon to the north. Lat. 18° 42′ N., long. 95° 17′ 30″ E. Divided into two quarters by the Kúla-khyoung. This town is of recent growth, the old Shwe-doung or Shwe-doung Myoma, mentioned in ancient records, being now only a village some miles farther south, opposite Pa-doung. Pop. (1864), under 5000; in 1877-78, returned at 13,588. Accessible by large boats, Shwe-doung forms the port of the Poung-day and Eng-ma rice plains, the produce of which is largely sent to Prome. The town contains the courts and usual public buildings; also numerous pagodas, monasteries, and *zayats*, or rest-houses.

Shwe-doung Myoma.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rice cultivation is not much carried on, except in the south-west. The villages are chiefly situated on the bank of the Irawadi. At the northern end of Theng-bhyú Lake in this circle is old Shwe-doung, the present town of that name having grown up since the annexation of Pegu in 1853. Pop. (1876-77), 3332; gross revenue, £606.

Shwe-gnyoung-beng.—Revenue circle in the Tha-boung township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 45 square miles; lying between the Shwe-gnyoung-beng and Da-ga rivers. Consists almost entirely of a waste plain, gradually undulating towards the north; rice cultivation in the west. Pop. (1876-77), 2426, largely engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £857.

Shwe-gnyoung-beng.—River in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Falls into the Bassein river in lat. 17° 1′ N., and long. 94° 55′ E., and communicates with the Da-ga by several creeks. It is from 100 to 150 feet wide in its lower portion, but only navigable by large boats during the rains.

Shwe-gún.—Revenue circle in the Than-lweng Hlaing-bhwai township of Amherst District, Tennasserim Division, British Burma; on the left bank of the Salwín, along which is a teak tract. Pop. (1876-77), 1994.

Shwe-gyeng.—A District in the Tenasserim Division, British Burma; lying in the valley of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river. Area, 5565 square miles; pop. (1872), 129,485. Bounded on the north by Toung-ngú District; on the east by the Poung-loung range and the Salwín Hill Tracts; on the south by Amherst District; and on the west by the Pegu Yoma Hills. After the second Burmese war, this District included the Salwín and Tha-htún Subdivisions of Amherst District, and was first called the Martaban Province, and then Martaban District. In 1864-65, Martaban was joined to Amherst, and the District was called Shwe-gyeng. In 1872, the Subdivision of Rwon-za-leng was formed into an independent jurisdiction now known as the Salwín Hill Tracts. Several small transfers have taken place since. Headquarters at SHWE-GYENG TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—In the north, the District is highly mountainous, both the eastern and western ranges sending down numerous spurs which on the east approach to within a few miles of the Tsit-toung. Both chains diminish in height towards the south, and the Pegu Yomas recede, leaving a wide stretch of good land. South of Kyaik-hto, a town at the southern base of the Poung-loung Hills, the whole country between the Tsit-toung and the Bhí-leng consists of vast monotonous plains covered with scrub forest or almost impenetrable elephant grass. At places, a pagoda, or a group of houses surrounded by a few tall palms, marks the village of some fishermen or salt-boilers, who gain a precarious livelihood from the muddy waters of the tidal creeks or the salt-impregnated soil. At high tides, the whole of the coast for miles inland is inundated; and so rapidly does the sea advance over the flats, that little or no chance is offered to the fisherman or turtle-seeker should he have neglected the warning sound of the approaching waters. During the dry season, the upper portion of these plains is easily passable by carts; but in the rains they become one vast sheet of water, with the tops of the tall elephant grass showing above, and almost concealing the pagodas and villages, by which alone the boatman can guide his course. Both the Pegu Yomas and the Poung-loung Mountains are densely wooded, and drained by small perennial streams. The passes over the former are mere tracks winding up ravines, and along the crests of spurs. Across the Poung-loung range are three principal routes,—the northern runs up the valley of the Baw-ga-ta and across the Thayet-peng-keng-dat Hill to Kaw-lú-do, the northern police-post in the Salwín Hill Tracts; the central road goes up the valleys of the Mút-ta-ma and the Már-dai to Pa-pwon; the southern leads from the source of the Mút-ta-ma to Hpa-wa-ta. The Poung-loung range, at the Tsek-le Hill opposite Shwe-gyeng, attains a height of about

4000 feet, and terminates above Keng-rwá in Ke-la-tha, a peak crowned by a conspicuous pagoda, said to have been founded many years ago at the same time as Kyaik-htí-yo, above Tsit-toung. The chief rivers of Shwe-gyeng District are the TSIT-TOUNG (Sitoung), also called the Toung-ngú and the Poung-loung; and the BHI-LENG or Dún-won. The Tsit-toung rises in Independent Burma, and enters Shwe-gyeng at its northern end, and, after an exceedingly tortuous course, falls into the Gulf of Martaban by a funnel-shaped mouth 7 or 8 miles wide, up which the spring-tides rush with great violence, forming a bore. This river is navigable throughout its entire length in this District by large boats and steam launches. A chopping sea follows the rolling crest of the bore, and sometimes wrecks a boat in a few minutes. The most important affluents of the Tsit-toung are—the Kwon, rising in the Pegu Yomas, and, after an east-south-east course of 60 miles, joins the main stream near Anan-baw; the Re-nwe, which flows into the Tsit-toung, after a south-easterly course of 90 miles, about 6 miles north of Shwe-gyeng town; the Rouk-thwa, navigable for a few miles above its mouth; the Mún; the Shwe-gyeng; and many smaller streams. The Bhí-leng rises in the Salwín Hill Tracts, and has a generally southerly course to the Gulf of Martaban. At first it is a rocky mountain torrent, but as soon as it emerges into the plains it deepens rapidly. During the rains, it forms the highway between the Tsit-toung and Maulmain. At spring-tides, a bore rushes up this river, inundating the country around for miles. Its feeders are few and insignificant, but during the rains it communicates on the east with the Dún-tha-mí, and on the west with the Tsit-toung and intervening rivers.

Shwe-gyeng contains five lakes, viz. Htún-daw, Tsa-weng, Mwai-deng, Mí-khyoung-goung, and Nga-thwai-zút. The District has never been carefully surveyed from a geological point of view. The Poung-loung range is composed of gneissose rocks, and the whole of the level and alluvial plains are occupied by a sandy and very homogeneous deposit. Laterite formation prevails at places. The District is said to be rich in minerals. Gold occurs in most of the tributaries of the Shwe-gyeng river (lit. 'gold-washing'), but the quantity found does not repay the labour of washing. Copper, lead, tin, and coal also exist, but are not worked. The chief varieties of timber growing in the District are teak, *pyeng-gado*, *pyeng-ma*, and *thit-tsí*.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 129,485, viz. 67,943 males and 61,542 females, or 23·26 persons per square mile. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 28,682; females, 25,941: above 12 years—males, 39,261; females, 35,601. Classified ethnologically, there were—Karengs, 43,475; Burmese, 41,562; Talaings, 35,401; Toungthús, 4887; Shans, 3189; Muhammadans, 421; Hindus, 291; Chinese, 157; Europeans,

Eurasians, and Americans, 68; 'others,' 34: total, 129,485. By 1878, the number of inhabitants had risen to 139,432. The Karengs are most numerous in the tract east of the Tsit-toung, and belong to two great families, Sgaw and Pwo; many of them have been converted to Christianity by the American Baptist missionaries. The Talaings chiefly inhabit the plains; the Burmese, the country lying north of the Tsit-toung. The Yabaings, who are engaged in the rearing of silk-worms, are found mainly on the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yomas in Bhaw-ní. The Hindus, Muhammadans, and Chinese are all immigrants since the British occupation, as are also many of the Shans, of whom a whole colony came some years ago and settled at Weng-ka-neng, at the junction of the Mút-ta-ma and Shwe-gyeng rivers. The headquarters, and the only town in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants, is SHWE-GYENG, founded in the last century before the Burmese conquest by Alompra; contains the usual public buildings; pop. (1878), 7528. Other towns are, — KYAIK-HTO, an old town at the foot of the Poung-loung range, containing a court-house, market-place, and police station; BHI-LENG, with a population of 2074, founded in 1824, and containing a court-house and the usual public offices; TSIT-TOUNG, on the river of the same name, said to have been built in 588 A.D., contains court-house, etc.; WENG-BA-DAW, noted for its manufacture of pots, and as the chief halting-place for boats proceeding up the Tsit-toung; KYOUK-GYI, at the foot of the Poung-loung Mountains, 34 miles above Shwe-gyeng, with trade in betel-nuts; Mún, Thú-rai-tha-mí, Pú-zwon-myoung, with manufacture of earthen jars; Gnyoung-le-beng, etc. Out of the 512 towns and villages in the District in 1872, no less than 318 contained less than 200 inhabitants, and 126 from 200 to 500; whilst 30 had from 500 to 1000, the remainder more than 1000, but only one above 5000. In 1878, the number of villages had risen to 564. The proportion of the population engaged in agriculture was returned in 1872 as 20·80 per cent., and the male agriculturists of 20 years of age and upwards numbered 20,209.

Agriculture.—Out of 5565 square miles, the total area of the District, only 175 are cultivated, and 3611 are capable of cultivation. The most fertile portions lie along the right bank of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river, towards the south. The principal crop is rice, of which 25 varieties are enumerated. Betel-nuts are very largely grown on the hillsides, near running streams, the water being diverted into the palm groves by artificial channels. Cotton is sown in the *toungyas* or hill-clearings, where the hill tribes carry on a nomadic agriculture. Tobacco, vegetables, and oil-seeds are also produced, but the out-turn is small. Rice is the only crop of which the cultivation has steadily increased. In 1877-78, the area under rice was 67,640 acres; under sugar-cane, 1020; vegetables, 1496; betel-nuts, 3738; mixed fruit-trees, 3619; cotton, 136;

and oil-seeds, 128. The area under rice in 1871-72 was 50,773 acres. The chief rice tracts are in the Kaw-lí-ya, Kweng-da-la, Gnyoung-le-beng, Re-hla, Kyouk-gyí, and Gamún-aing circles, the last being the most important. In 1877-78, the price of rice per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 5s.; of salt, 4s. 3d. A buffalo cost £7, and a plough bullock £6. The average size of a holding is between 3 and 4 acres. As a general rule, the land is held by small proprietors, and is very rarely rented out, and never for a long term of years. Occasionally labourers are hired for rice cultivation, and are always paid in kind.

Manufactures, etc.—The only manufactures in the District are pots, salt, and silk-spinning. The pots are made at Pú-zwon-myoung, a village a few miles above Shwe-gyeng town, where clay is procured on the spot; at Kweng-da-la, a little lower down; at Tshiep-gyí in the Kyouk-gyí township; and at Weng-ba-daw in the Tsit-toung township. At Pú-zwon-myoung, the pots are made for export to Rangoon and Maulmain and intermediate towns, but at the other places for local use only. The largest sized pots are sold for 10s., and the others for 3s. per hundred. Each kiln holds 1000 pots, amongst which are about 200 of the largest kind. The annual produce of one man's labour is estimated at 1000 unburned pots a month, or 7000 in the season, *i.e.* from November to May. The industry has been in existence for about twenty-five years. The pots made at Weng-ba-daw are solely for the salt-boilers, the pot-makers exchanging for salt, delivered at the rate of 365 lbs. for every 100 pots. The yearly out-turn averages 15,000 pots. In the Bhaw-ní and Anan-baw circles, at the foot and on the lower slopes of the Pegu Yomas, silk-worms are bred by the Yabaings as in PROME DISTRICT. The annual produce of silk is about 9000 lbs., the value of which on the spot is £450. The quantity exported, chiefly to Prome and Shwe-doung, where, on account of the number of skilled weavers, there is the best market for it, is estimated at two-thirds of the total produce, or about 6000 lbs. Of made roads, there are only 16 in the District; but cart travelling is easy in the plains, and along the left bank of the Tsit-toung river a fairly good road leads to Bhí-leng *viâ* Tsit-toung, Kyaik-hto, and Keng-rwa. King Tabeng Shwe-htí, who reigned over the Talaing kingdom from 1540 to 1550, made a road from Pegu to Toung-ngú with rest-houses and gardens at intervals for the use of travellers. The road alone still exists, but is passable in dry weather only. During the rains, communication is carried on almost everywhere by boat; the total length of waterway is 250 miles. The journey from Maulmain to the Tsit-toung is made *viâ* Weng-ba-daw on the west, and the Shwe-lay Canal on the east, which is connected with the Bhí-leng river. To facilitate intercourse with Rangoon, an artificial canal has been cut from Myit-kyo on the Tsit-toung to the Kha-ra-tshú creek, and thence by the Paing-kyún channel into the Pegu river.

Administration.—In 1857-58, the total revenue of Shwe-gyeng District amounted to £29,200. At the end of 1865-66, the whole of the Martaban Subdivision was transferred to Amherst District. In 1877-78, the imperial income of the District was £38,485, and the local funds yielded £4085, making altogether a gross revenue of £42,570, of which the land and capitation taxes and the fisheries form the chief items. For administrative purposes the District is divided into 4 townships, viz. Tsit-toung, Bhí-leng, Kyouk-gyí, and Shwe-gyeng. These comprise 28 revenue circles, each of which is in charge of a *thúgyí*, under the Deputy Commissioner or his subordinates. For some years after British annexation, the country continued in a disturbed state. Whilst Meng-Loung was in rebellion in Rwon-za-leng, a Shan prisoner, formerly a *thúgyí*, effected his escape, and openly proclaimed himself on the side of Meng-Loung. The native officer in charge was murdered in cold blood, but a small detachment was immediately sent against the rebels, who were quickly dispersed. A strong police force was then constituted, which in 1877 consisted of 379 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 15 square miles and every 358 of the population. The total cost was £7653. The number of prisoners confined in the small lock-up at Shwe-gyeng town was 79 in 1877. Besides the ordinary jail service, they are employed in oil and rice-cleaning mills. The State middle-class school in 1876 had an average monthly attendance of 58 pupils, all studying Burmese. The American Baptist missionaries have also boys' and girls' schools for the Karengs. But with these exceptions, the education of the people is entirely in the hands of the Buddhist monks and of a few laymen, who have opened village schools for instruction in reading and writing. According to the Census returns, the percentage of males below 12 years of age who are being educated is 9·50; of females, 0·17: above 20, the percentage of males who may be classed as educated is 26·13; of females, 0·38.

Climate.—Except in the hills, the climate is generally healthy. The heat is excessive from March till May; but a refreshing breeze blows from six to seven P.M. Towards the end of May, the rains are ushered in by violent thunderstorms. The total rainfall registered in 1877 was 156·99 inches. The prevalent disease is fever. In 1877, the number of patients treated at the dispensary was 6914, of whom 343 were in-patients.

Shwe-gyeng.—A township in the centre of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; lying on both sides of the Tsit-toung river. Bounded north by Toung-ngú District, east by the Poung-loung range, south by Rangoon, and west by Henzada and Prome Districts. The eastern and western borders are mountainous, and covered with dense forest, but between the lower slopes of the hills

and the Tsit-toung lie fertile tracts of rice land. The other principal rivers are the Kyú and the Da-la-nwon on the east, and the Shwe-gyeng on the west. Most of these are navigable for some distance during the rains. In the west, the township is traversed by numerous fair-weather cart-tracks; the main road from Pegu to Toung-ngú is now being made, and the projected Tsit-toung Valley (State) Railway will pass through Shwe-gyeng. The town of Shwe-gyeng lies within this township, but it is not under the charge of the Extra-Assistant Commissioner. Chief villages—Pú-zwon-myoung, the seat of a large manufacture of earthen pots; and Gnyoung-le-beng. Pop. (1876-77), 49,198; gross revenue, £14,725.

Shwe-gyeng.—Revenue circle in the Kanoung township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated along the right bank of the Irawadi. Thinly cultivated, principally with rice and garden produce. Pop. (1878), 3641; revenue, £684.

Shwe-gyeng.—Chief town and headquarters of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 17° 55′ 0″ N., and long. 96° 57′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river, at the confluence of the Shwe-gyeng river. Pop. (1878), 7528. Extending across the angle formed by the junction of the two rivers is a low line of laterite hills, on which stand the barracks of the small garrison, and a few houses, the remnant of the large cantonment established here after the second Burmese war. Where these abut on the Tsit-toung, north of the town, is the old fort and stockade, which the Burmese evacuated on hearing of the advance of the British column from Martaban to Toung-ngú in 1853. The main portion of the town, which is built regularly, lies in the low land between the Tsit-toung and the Shwe-gyeng, and during the rains is to a great extent flooded. The inhabitants are principally engaged in trade. The town contains the usual offices of a Deputy Commissioner, police station, post and telegraph offices, hospital and dispensary, school, and forest office for the examination of timber floated down the Tsit-toung. Shwe-gyeng is a place of modern growth.

Shwe-gyeng.—River in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It rises in the high mountains north-east of Shwe-gyeng, and falls into the Tsit-toung at that town. Above Shwe-gyeng, where it receives the Ma-da-ma from the south, and where its channel suddenly deepens, the river is only navigable by the smallest boats. Its bed is sandy, and in places rocky.

Shwe-hmaw-daw.—A pagoda in the old fortified town of Pegu, Rangoon District, British Burma. It is a pyramidal, solid brick building, rising to a height of 324 feet from an octagonal base, each side of which is 162 feet long. It stands upon two terraces, the lower one being a parallelogram, with its sides 1390 feet long. The pagoda is

surrounded by two tiers of smaller temples; the lower tier contains 75, and the upper 53. Shwe-hmaw-daw, in common with most of the sacred edifices in Burma, is connected with a visit of Gautama, though there can be no doubt that he never came so far as Burma. Tradition asserts that whilst Gautama was staying on the Mat-kú-la Hill, near the sources of the Rwon-za-leng river, he was visited by the two brothers Ma-ha-tha-la and Tsú-la-tha-la of Zoung-dú, a village about 20 miles above the modern town of Pegu. To them Gautama gave two hairs, and, foreseeing that in the 1116th year of his religion the capital of a powerful kingdom would be founded at Han-tha-wad-dí, directed that these sacred relics should be enshrined on a hill close by Ma-ha-tha-la; and Tsú-la-tha-la obtained the aid of the Thagya king of their native town in carrying out Gautama's instructions. The King of Zoung-dú placed certain *náts* or spirits to guard the shrine, made grants of money and land to the pagoda, and dedicated a number of people to its service. The Burmese chronicle is very vague and fragmentary, until it comes to what may be called the historical period. In the year 1116 of Gautama's era (573 A.D.), Tha-ma-la and Wí-ma-la established the kingdom and city of Han-tha-wad-dí, of which Tha-ma-la was the first sovereign. He found the Shwe-hmaw-daw still in existence, and he added to it, and dedicated 25 families to its service; and successive sovereigns kept the pagoda in repair. In 1209 A.D., A-nú-ma-ra-za, the twelfth king of the original dynasty, obtained a holy tooth from the King of Tha-htún to enshrine in the pagoda; and Dham-ma-ze-dí, who came to the throne in 1502, received from the King of Ceylon a present of 100,000 paving-stones, of which 50,000 were used in paving the court or upper terrace. Towards the end of the 18th century, on the occasion of a visit from the King of Burma, the pagoda was thoroughly repaired, and the *htí* or umbrella canopy re-gilt. In June 1852, on the outbreak of the second Burmese war, the pagoda was the scene of some sharp fighting previous to the capture of the town of Pegu by the British.

Shwe-lay.—River in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; rising in the western slopes of the Ko-dek spur of the Pegu Yomas. It flows in a south-westerly direction, traversing the centre of the plain between the Yomas on the east and the Prome Hills on the west, till it falls into the Myit-ma-kha, north of the village of Keng-than. This river is known by the names of Shwe-lay, Wai-gyí, Wek-pút, and Khyún-khyún-gya, in various portions of its course. During the rains, boats of 500 bushels burden can ascend the river as far as Tha-bye-poung-gyí village. The Shwe-lay drains a rich teak country, and several attempts have been made to facilitate the removal of the felled logs to the Irawadi, but without success. This is owing to the numerous hill torrents that rush into the Shwe-lay during the rains, and bring with

them the forest debris, which during the dry season has rolled into their beds. Thus obstructions are formed; and the foaming water in a few hours bursts the banks, and either continues its course onward in the old channel, or cuts for itself a new one in the soft soil of the plain.

Shwe-lay.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending along the western slopes of the Pegu Yomas from lat. 18° 28′ to 18° 51′ N., and from long. 95° 30′ to 95° 58′ E. It includes the old townships of Shwe-lay, Rwa-bien, and Myo-doung, and is divided into 14 revenue circles. The whole country, except in the south-west, is hilly and covered with valuable timber. The other chief products are rice, cotton, and mulberry. The principal streams are the North and South Na-weng, and the Teng-gyí, but all are unnavigable within this township. Pop. (1876-77), 21,963; gross revenue, £3348.

Shwe-loung.—Revenue circle in the Tsan-rwe township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; lying on both banks of the Myit-ma-kha or Hlaing river. Pop. (1876-77), 4266; gross revenue, £1025.

Shwe-loung.—Township in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending northwards from the sea-coast for nearly 100 miles, between the Pya-ma-law and the Irawadi rivers. Area, about 1124 square miles. In the north, the country consists of a plain covered with scrub forest; the lower portion is cut up into islands by numerous inter-communicating creeks, and is dotted with temporary fishing hamlets. Shwe-loung comprises 6 revenue circles. Pop. (1876-77), 34,715; gross revenue, £12,090.

Shwe-loung.—Headquarters of Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, British Burma, and the seat of an Extra-Assistant Commissioner; situated in lat. 16° 44′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 23′ 30″ E., on the Irawadi.

Shwe-myeng-deng.—Pagoda in the Ka-ma township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Its name, which means 'conspicuous,' is derived from its position. It is said to date from about 100 A.D.; and subsequently, as it was found that the desires of many who visited this shrine were accomplished, it received its second name of Shwe-tsú-toung-byí, or 'prayers fulfilled.'

Shwe-myeng-deng.—Revenue circle in Bassein township and District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending along the left bank of the Bassein river. Area, 21 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 3224, chiefly engaged in rice cultivation and fishing; gross revenue, £653.

Shwe-nat-toung.—Pagoda in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; about 16 miles south of Prome town. It is said to have been erected by Tsan-da-de-wí, the queen of Dwot-ta-boung, the founder of Prome (*circa* 442 B.C.). The building has been since added to and repaired, and being profusely gilt, stands out conspicuously

on a low hill. Behind it are six other pagodas. The annual festival held in March is attended by about 20,000 people.

Shwe-thek-lwot (lit. '*Golden Life Preserved*'). — Pagoda in Thayet town, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It was erected by Meng-gyí-tswa-tsaw-kai, the second king of the Ava dynasty, about 1373 A.D., as a thankoffering for the preservation of his life when he, as a child, was taken captive in Thayet-myo by the King of Arakan. This building is remarkable as being one of the most southern hollow pagodas; in Upper Burma there are many of this kind, but in the lower country the great majority are of the solid bell-shaped pattern.

Shwe-tshan-daw.—Pagoda near Twan-te in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; more venerated by the Talaings than even the great Shwe-Dagon of Rangoon. According to its sacred history, it was erected in 577 B.C. by Thamien-htaw-byín-ran, the King of Kha-beng, and his queen, as a shrine for three of Gautama's hairs given to him by three pilgrims from Ceylon, on the occasion of their visiting him whilst he was tarrying in the Zeng-gyaik Hills. Subsequently, in 538 B.C., four more holy hairs were deposited in the pagoda by King Thamien-htaw-byín-gnya-kan-de and a hermit named Gyí-rí-ren-ga. Near the Shwe-tshan-daw is a grove of *thwot-ta-bat* trees (Sapota sp.), seven in number, the only ones in Pegu. The trees were cut down, it is said, by order of the Talaing rulers, when the Burmese conquered their country, because the produce was a royal fruit to be eaten by none but the monarch, and the present trees are shoots of the old stumps.

Shwe-tshan-daw.—Pagoda in Prome town, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It is situated on a hill about half a mile from the bank of the Irawadi, and gives its name to a quarter of the town. The building is gilt all over, and is solid. Its height is 180 feet, and it occupies an area of 11,025 square feet. It is surrounded by 83 small gilt niches, called Ze-dí-yan, each containing an image of Gautama. The pagoda stands on a paved platform, approached by four flights of steps, two of which, the northern and the western, are covered with elaborately carved roofs supported on massive teak posts. The gilt iron network *htí*, or conical top, is 10 feet in diameter at its base. There are on the platform 12 or 13 bells attached to massive cross-bars, which are struck with deers' antlers by those who come to worship. The pagoda is supposed to have been first erected by two brothers, I-zí-ka and Pa-lí-ka. Tradition alleges that when Gautama arrived near Prome, and was walking on the island of Zeng-yan, he was accosted by a *naga* or dragon, who begged for some sacred hairs to enshrine in a temple. Gautama refused this request, saying that the glory of building a pagoda to contain his relics must be reserved for two brothers who had gone on a trading expedition to Thú-wún-na-bhú-mí or Tha-htún. The *naga* then presented to Gautama an emerald box, praying that as he could

not receive the sacred hairs, he might at least contribute the receptacle for them. His gift was accepted, and shortly afterwards I-zí-ka and Pa-lí-ka anchored at a place known to this day as Mya-rwa or 'Emerald Village,' and discovered the relics. Having heard of Gautama's prediction, that on the site of the modern Prome the capital of a powerful kingdom would be founded, they proceeded thither, and after considerable difficulty built the pagoda on the hill on which it now stands. Seven days after their departure for their native place, the pagoda sank into the earth. Owing to the prayers of King Dwotta-boung, the founder of ancient Prome, the pagoda reappeared, and the king restored it. The Burmese records give no further account of the sacred building, and oral tradition is all we have to rely upon. In 1753, Aloung-bhúra coated it with gold; and in 1841, King Tharawadi thoroughly repaired the pagoda, which had been damaged by an earthquake, and put on it a new *htí* studded with jewels. Since then it has been again partially destroyed by another earthquake. It has lately been re-gilt, at an estimated cost of about £2500, raised by public subscription. The annual festival is held on the full moon of Taboung, corresponding to March.

Shwe-tsú-toung-byí.—Pagoda in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* SHWE-MYENG-DENG.

Shwe-tsway-daw.—Pagoda in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* SHWE AN-DAW.

Siáldah.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated just outside the limits of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 35′ N., long. 88° 26′ E. Terminus of the Eastern Bengal and Calcutta and South-Eastern Railways. Seat of a large transit trade.

Siálkot (*Sealkote*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 56′ and 32° 50′ N. lat., and between 74° 16′ and 75° 3′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878-79, 1955 square miles; population in 1868, 1,005,004. Siálkot forms the north-western District of the Amritsar (Umritsur) Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the State of Jamu (Jummoo) or Kashmír, on the north-west by the river Chenáb, on the east by Gurdáspur, on the south-east by the Rávi, on the west by Lahore and Gujránwála. The administrative headquarters are at the town of SIALKOT.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Siálkot, occupying the uppermost portion of the Rechna Doáb, stretches in a comparatively unbroken level from the valley of the Rávi on the south-east, to that of the Chenáb on the north-western border. Along the course of either great boundary river, a narrow fringe of alluvial lowland marks the central depression in which they run; while above them rise the high banks which form the limits of their wider beds. Parallel to the Rávi, another stream, the

Degh, which rises in the Jamu (Jummoo) Hills, traverses the south-eastern corner of the District, fringed on either side, like the greater rivers, by a line of alluvial soil. The remainder of the surface consists of a level plain, slightly submontane in character, but lying at a distance of 20 miles from the outermost range of the Himálayan system. Midway between the Rávi and the Chenáb, however, a high dorsal tract stretches from beyond the Jamu border far into the heart of the Doáb. Spreading in its northern portion from the valley of the Degh to the high bank of the Chenáb, it narrows gradually as it runs south-westward, till it finally terminates in an apex about 10 miles beyond Pasrúr, thus forming an irregularly triangular upland wedge. The neighbourhood of the hills has imparted to the general aspect of the District a greenness and fertility rare among the Punjab plains. Two-thirds of its area have already been brought under the plough, and careful tillage might still increase the limit of cultivation. The upper half especially, close to the hills, produces excellent crops; but the southern portion, farther removed from the influence of the rains, shows a marked decrease of fertility. The poorest lands lie in the triangular dorsal ridge, where the naturally arid soil depends entirely for its water supply upon the local rainfall. Elsewhere, irrigation from wells or hill streams has turned the whole country into a waving sheet of tillage. The alluvial lowlands of the Chenáb and the Degh, however, suffer in parts from the injurious saline efflorescence known as *reh*. Between the Degh and the Rávi, too, the wild and unproductive upland grows more and more impregnated with saltpetre as it recedes from the hills, till near the Lahore border it merges into a tangled jungle of brushwood and reeds. Numerous small torrents traverse the north-eastern tract, and several swamps (*jhíls*) studded over the face of the country are useful for irrigation. Traces of ancient canals may still be observed, some of which might repay the trouble of restoration. The most remarkable owed its origin to Alí Mardán Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, and once brought the waters of the Távi to supply the imperial gardens at Sháhdra. Trees are everywhere rare, and cow-dung forms the ordinary fuel, being used even in the cantonment of Siálkot. A few wolves are the only representatives of the carnivora in the District, while even deer and hares find little cover in so highly cultivated a tract.

History.—Rasálu, Rájá of Siálkot, who lived somewhere about the first century after Christ, forms the great centre of all the local Punjab legends. General Cunningham identifies this possibly mythical hero with the son of Sálivahána, the Vikramáditya who overthrew the Sakas in 78 A.D. Tradition universally points to the town of Siálkot as the famous Rájá's capital, while a thousand stories keep alive his memory among the Hindus of the hills and the submontane tract. After Rasálu's

death, however, his kingdom fell under a curse, and remained desolate for three hundred years. About 643 A.D., the Rájput princes of Jamu overran the District, which they held until its union with the Muhammadan Empire. For a while the Hindu rulers managed to retain their possessions in the plains by the payment of a tribute to the Delhi Emperors; but under the Mughals, Siálkot formed a part of the Province (*subah*) of Lahore, and did not revert to its ancient princes until after the dissolution of the Mughal organization in the days of Ahmad Sháh Duráni. During that stormy period, however, the Rájput Rájás of Jamu once more made good their claim to the fertile and level belt which stretched at the foot of their mountainous principality. In 1740, Ranjít Deo, the ruling Rájá, under a grant from the Duráni Emperor, possessed himself, by force of arms, of a strip of territory stretching from Dinga in the Jetch Doáb to the valley of the Rávi. A powerful Pathán family then occupied the town of Siálkot itself; while the remainder of the District was harried by bands of Síkhs, under the command of the Bhangi chieftains and of Charrat Sinh, grandfather of Ranjít Sinh, the Mahárájá of the Punjab. In 1774, Brij Ráj Deo, son of the Jamu Rájá, rebelled against his father, and called in the aid of Charrat Sinh. The Síkh chieftain gladly embraced the opportunity; but Ranjít Deo met him on the banks of the river Basantar, as he marched on Jamu, and utterly defeated the Sikh forces, while Charrat Sinh himself lost his life in the engagement. The Bhangi chieftains, who had just wrested Siálkot town from its Pathán masters, and dreaded the rising power of their co-religionist, gave their aid to the Rájá in this campaign. Mahá Sinh, son and successor of the defeated chief, then turned southward, and began to establish his authority in the lower part of the Doáb. Meanwhile, Ranjít Deo died in 1783, and was succeeded by his rebellious son, Brij Ráj Deo, a man of debauched habits, quite unfit to hold his own against the active and vigorous Síkhs. Mahá Sinh seized upon the opportunity, and advanced upon Jamu in 1784 with a considerable force. The new Rájá fled to the hills on his approach, and Mahá Sinh sacked the defenceless capital without striking a blow. He did not attempt, however, to secure his conquest, but retired at once to his headquarters at Gujránwála. The Bhangi chiefs of Siálkot and the Kanhyas from the Bári Doáb thereupon completed the overthrow of the Jamu prince, and wrested from him, by the year 1786, all Ranjít Deo's acquisitions in the plains. Brij Ráj Deo himself finally fell in battle, making a last effort to resist the Síkh encroachments. The whole District thus passed into the hands of the rising sect, and the greater part became the appanage of retainers of the Bhangi confederacy or *misl*. The Kanhya chiefs took the rest, except a few villages which fell to Mahá Sinh. But Ranjít Sinh, son of the last-named prince, soon disturbed this amicable

arrangement of territory in the Rechna Doáb. In 1790, the future Mahárájá appropriated part of the Bhangi domains; and in 1807, he made himself master of Pasrúr. In the same year, the Sardárs of Siálkot ventured to question his title to these new acquisitions; whereupon Ranjít Sinh promptly attacked and defeated them, adding Siálkot to his growing dominions. By the end of 1810, the whole District had been swallowed up; while, a few years later, the Mahárájá made himself supreme from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Suláimán Mountains. British rule was extended to Siálkot in 1849, after the second Síkh war. On the first distribution of the Province into Divisions and Districts, the whole upper portion of the Rechna Doáb was formed into a single charge, having its headquarters at Wazírábád. In 1850, however, this extensive District underwent subdivision, being formed into the two new Districts of Gujránwála and Siálkot, while portions were made over to Gurdáspur and Lahore. Subsequent transfers of territory have brought the boundaries to their present shape. During the Mutiny of 1857, Siálkot was the scene of an outbreak on the part of the native troops stationed in the cantonments. The mutineers laid siege for a time to the European residents in the fort, and remained masters of the whole District. The treasury was plundered, and all the records destroyed.

Population.—The area at present included in Siálkot District had a population of 805,837 at the Census of 1855. By 1868, the number had increased by 199,167 persons, or 24·71 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 1969 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 1,005,004 persons, distributed among 2317 villages or townships, and inhabiting 200,570 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 510; villages or townships per square mile, 1·17; houses per square mile, 101; persons per village, 433; persons per house, 5·01. (The area of the District, according to the latest Parliamentary Return, that of 1879, is 1955 square miles.) Classified according to sex, there were—males, 546,159; females, 458,845: proportion of males, 54·35 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, below 12 years—males, 201,014; females, 172,919; total children, 373,933, or 37·20 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 345,145; females, 285,926; total, 631,071, or 62·80 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 218,771, or 21·76 per cent.; Muhammadans, 601,959, or 59·90 per cent.; Síkhs 50,279, or 5 per cent.; and 'others,' 133,995, or 13·33 per cent. A revised statement, compiled in 1873, gives the following analysis of the occupations of the people:—Agricultural, 419,304 persons; non-agricultural, 585,700 persons. As regards ethnical classification, the principal Hindu and Síkh tribes comprise 35,928 Bráhmans, 11,734

Rájputs, 19,274 Kshattriyas, 14,264 Aroras, and 86,362 Játs, besides a few Banias, Gujars, and Ahírs. The Muhammadans include 13,570 Sayyids, 2831 Mughals, 3079 Patháns, 45,465 Rájputs, 137,065 Játs, 10,263 Gujars, and a small sprinkling of 'others.' The total number of Játs—Hindus and Muhammadans together—amounts to 223,427 persons, and they form the finest agricultural class in the District. The Awáns, though not shown separately in the Census return, are a tribe of great social and political importance, being the leading Muhammadan race of the submontane tract. The District contained 5 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 5000, namely—SIALKOT (town and cantonments), 25,337; PASRUR, 8527; ZAFFARWAL, 5641; KILA SOBHA SINH, 5153; and CHAWINDA, 5082. The total urban population accordingly amounted to 49,740 persons, or 4·94 per cent. of the District population.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1,251,324 acres in 1868, as much as 825,874 acres were under cultivation. The area under each crop in 1872-73 was as follows:—*Rabí* or spring harvest—wheat, 404,775 acres; barley, 65,273; gram, 6690; lentils, 19,929; tobacco, 6473; oil-seeds, 13,225; vegetables, 10,908: *Kharíf* or autumn harvest—rice, 85,463; Indian corn, 32,863; millets, 52,739; pulses, 22,377; oil-seeds, 7762; sugar-cane, 45,933; cotton, 47,237; vegetables, 8145. Wheat forms the great staple of the *rabí*, and rice and millets of the *kharíf.* The best sugar-cane grows on the land watered by the Degh, and in the lowlands of the Chenáb north of Siálkot town. Millets, on the other hand, occupy the dry uplands in the centre of the District. Irrigation is widely practised, as much as 420,379 acres (or more than half the total cultivated area) being artificially supplied with water, according to the latest returns. In the tract known as Bajwant, nearly every field derives an abundant supply from a network of cuts and water-courses in connection with the Chenáb and its branches. Elsewhere, irrigation is carried on from wells, or by means of Persian wheels working upon the banks of streams. The value of manure is universally appreciated, and rotation of crops is carried out to a considerable extent. The village tenures belong as a rule to the intermediate type known as *pattidárí.* Rents are paid almost equally in kind and in money. Day-labourers are seldom employed upon agricultural work except at harvest-time, when they receive their wages in grain. Skilled labourers in towns received in 1872-73 from 6d. to 9d. per diem; unskilled, from 3d. to 4½d. per diem. Prices of food grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley, 39 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 11d. per cwt.; gram, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; Indian corn and *joár*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; rice, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The local commerce centres on the

town of Siálkot, which gathers into its *bázárs* more than half the raw produce of the District. The large markets of Lahore and Amritsar (Umritsur) afford a ready outlet for its surplus stocks, while the great rivers on either side form natural channels of communication with the lower parts of the Punjab. Grain of all kinds is exported to Múltán, Lahore, and Amritsar; sugar and molasses to Peshάwar, Kábul, and Karáchi (Kurrachee). Arms are despatched inland to Jamu; shawl-edging, manufactured by Kashmíri settlers at Siálkot and Kilá Sobha Sinh, to Amritsar; and country cloth to the hill tracts. The return trade includes—grain from Batála and the Bári Doáb uplands; salt from Pind Dádan Khán; rice, tobacco, and potatoes from Kángra and Núrpur; *ghí* from Jalálpur and the hills; timber from Kashmír (Cashmere); hemp from the submontane tracts of Jamu; and indigo from Múltán. The indigenous manufactures comprise silk, saddlery, shawl-edging, coarse chintzes, pottery, brass vessels, country cloth, cutlery, and paper. In 1869, an undertaking was started at Siálkot under the name of the Belfast Flax Company, to encourage the growth of flax for exportation to England; but though an excellent fibre was raised in the District, the difficulty of procuring good seed, and the apathy of the peasantry (who would not adopt the new methods necessary to the production of first-class flax), caused the enterprise to prove a failure after some years' trial. The total length of roads in 1872-73 amounted to 9 miles metalled and 1064 miles unmetalled. The District contains three printing presses,—one at the jail, which prints in English, Urdu, Persian, and Hindi; and two native presses in Siálkot town, which print in the vernacular.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant Commissioners, and 1 Extra-Assistant Commissioner, besides the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. The total imperial revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £125,768; of which sum £108,598, or more than five-sixths, was derived from the land tax. The only other item of any importance was that of stamps. Besides these imperial receipts, a small provincial and local revenue was also raised. The incidence of the land revenue is high, being as much as 1s. 11¼d. per acre in Siálkot, against 8d. per acre, the average of the Province. The total number of civil and revenue judges in 1872-73 was 18; and the total number of magistrates, 17. The regular police force in the same year numbered 385 officers and men, while the municipalities maintained a separate constabulary of 185 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 570 policemen, being 1 constable to every 3·45 square miles of the area and to every 1761 of the population. They are further supplemented by a body of rural watchmen (*chaukídárs*). The total number of persons brought to

trial for all offences, great or small, committed in the District in 1871 was 6275. The District jail at Siálkot contained in 1872 a total of 1152 prisoners, with a daily average of 460. Education, which was at a very low ebb during the Sikh period, has made a considerable start under British rule. In 1872-73, the District contained 427 schools of all grades (besides the normal school at Siálkot), with a roll of 8491 pupils. The total expenditure on education during that year amounted to £3275. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls* and 9 *parganás*. The ten municipal towns of SIALKOT, JANKI, DASKA, ZAFFARWAL, SANKHATRA, CHAWINDA, KILA SOBHA SINH, PASRUR, NAROWAL, and MITRANWALI, had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £3909, or 1s. 0⅛d. per head of the population (77,239) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Siálkot may be considered as free from excessive heat, judged by the common standard of the Punjab. Even in the hottest weather, a storm in the hills produces a pleasing change; while in May and September, cool breezes from the Himálayas moderate the prevailing heat. The mean monthly temperature in 1871 was 87·62° F. in May; 84·76° F. in July; and 53·43° F. in December. The maximum point reached during the year was 114° F., and the minimum 32° F. The annual rainfall for the seven years ending 1872 was as follows:—In inches, 32·4, 49·4, 45·3, 41·1, 32·5, 33·9, and 24·4 respectively. It will therefore be seen that the fluctuations are far less wide, and the supply far less precarious, than in most other Districts of the Punjab plains. Siálkot bears a good reputation as a healthy tract. Malarial fever, small-pox, dysentery, and pneumonia form the prevalent diseases. The itch also proves troublesome amongst the agricultural classes. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1872 was 31,079, or 31 per thousand. Of these no less than 18,556, or 18·66 per thousand, were assigned to fevers. The District contains 5 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 21,100 persons, of whom 488 were in-patients. The leper asylum at Pathánwáli consists of three barracks, capable of accommodating about 100 lepers. Cattle-disease occurs in the form of a murrain called *waba*, which carries off a large number of beasts every year.

Siálkot.—*Tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab; consisting of a fertile agricultural country, lying around the headquarters station. Area, 628 square miles; pop. (1868), 380,031; number of villages, 809.

Siálkot.—Municipal town, military cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Siálkot District, Punjab. Population in 1868 (including the cantonment), 25,337, consisting of 6148 Hindus, 16,580 Muhammadans, 1295 Síkhs, 13 Christians, and 1301 'others.' Situated in lat. 32° 31′ N., and long. 74° 36′ E., on the northern bank of the Aik torrent, upon the edge of the high triangular ridge which

extends southward from the Jamu Hills. Distant from Lahore 72 miles north-east. Founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Sál or Shál, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* as an uncle of the Pándava princes. Restored by Sálwan or Sálivahána, otherwise called Vikramáditya, father of the great Punjab hero, Rasálu. Headquarters of a fiscal District under the Mughals. Remains of an ancient fort crown a low circular eminence in the centre of the town, and are known as the stronghold of Rájá Sálwan. Other similar mounds stand among the outskirts. The modern town possesses handsome and well-built streets. Historical interest attaches to the fort in consequence of its gallant defence during the Mutiny of 1857; a cemetery at its foot contains the graves of the victims. A temple erected by Rájá Tej Sinh has a conspicuous spire, visible from all parts of the town. The shrine of the first *gúrú*, Bába Nának (*see* AMRITSAR DISTRICT), is the scene of a famous annual fair, largely attended by Síkhs from all parts of the District. The Darbár Báoli Sáhib, a covered well, erected by a Rájput disciple of Bába Nának, also ranks high in religious consideration among the Síkhs. Muhammadan shrine of Imám Alí-ul-hak, a handsome building of ancient construction. Three public gardens; sessions-house, court-house, treasury; *tahsíli*, police office, jail; two *saráis*, school-house of Scotch Presbyterian Mission, post office, Government charitable dispensary. The cantonment lies about three-quarters of a mile north of the town, and contains the station church, a Roman Catholic convent school, a staging rest-house, and a public garden. Local trade centre of rising importance, with several wealthy merchants and bankers, the most prominent of whom belong to the Jain tribe of Bhálras. Large paper manufacture, carried on at 165 mills, and giving employment to 1244 men, with a yearly out-turn valued at £6720. Considerable mauufacture of cotton cloth. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2456, or 1s. 5⅞d. per head of population (33,035) within municipal limits.

Siáltekh.—Village in Cáchár District, Assam; situated on the Barák or Surmá river, near the boundary of Sylhet, where toll is levied on the timber, bamboos, etc. floated down stream. Up to 1876, the river tolls at Siáltekh *ghát* were farmed out to a contractor, who paid rent at the rate of £1500 a year. Since that date the toll station has been taken under direct Government management. In 1876-77, the receipts fell to £854.

Siána.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SIVANA.

Siársol.—Coal-mine in Bardwán District, Bengal, being a part of the RANIGANJ coal-field. The mineral is a variety of the non-coking bituminous coal, with a large portion of volatile matter and ash. The brighter portions consist of very pure coal, a sample of which gave

the following results:—Volatile, 40 per cent.; fixed carbon, 57·5 per cent.; ash, 2·5 per cent. The composition varies, however, considerably, the percentage of fixed carbon in one sample being 51·1; of volatile matter, 38·5; and of ash, 10·4; while selected rich layers gave the following analysis:—Fixed carbon, 57·25 per cent.; volatile matter, 41 per cent.; and ash, only 1·75 per cent.

Sibi.—Religious fair in Túmkúr District, Mysore.—*See* SHIBI.

Síbpur.—Suburb of Howrah town, Húglí District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 34′ N., and long. 88° 16′ E., opposite Fort William. Has grown since the beginning of this century from a small village into a flourishing town; inhabited chiefly by Government clerks. On the river-side are the Albion works, consisting of a flour-mill and a distillery, also a dockyard and a saw-mill. To the south of Síbpur are the Royal Botanical Gardens and Bishop's College. Permanent mart for District produce; bricks made and exported to Calcutta.

Síbságar (*Seebsaugor*).—A British District in the upper valley of the Province of Assam, lying between 26° 19′ and 27° 16′ N. lat., and between 93° 21′ and 95° 25′ E. long. Area (according to the recent Revenue Survey, which closed operations in 1875), 2855 square miles; population (as ascertained by the Census of 1872), 296,589. Bounded on the north and west by Lakhimpur District, the Brahmaputra marking the boundary for the greater part of the distance; on the south by independent Nágá territory; and on the west by the Nágá Hills District. The administrative headquarters are at SIBSAGAR TOWN, situated about 11 miles inland from the south bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the appearance of a level plain, much overgrown with grass and jungle, and intersected by numerous tributaries of the Brahmaputra. Along the bank of the great river, the land lies very low, and is exposed to annual inundation; in the interior, the country rises towards the Nágá Hills in the background, and the cane-brakes and grassy swamps of the valley give place to jungles of heavy timber. The District is divided by the little stream of the Disái into two tracts, which differ in soil and general appearance. East of the Disái, the surface is very flat, and the soil consists of a heavy loam of a whitish colour, which is well adapted for rice cultivation. The general level is only broken by the long lines of embankments which were raised by the Aham kings, to serve both as roadways and as a protection against floods. West of the Disái, though the surface soil is of the same character, the general aspect is diversified by the protrusion of the subsoil. The latter is a stiff clay, abounding in iron nodules, and furrowed by frequent ravines and water-courses, which divide the cultivable fields into innumerable small sunken patches, locally known as *holás*. It is in this western tract,

forming the Subdivision of Jorhát, that European enterprise has terraced the slopes of the forest-clad hills with trim tea-gardens.

There are no mountains within the limits of the District. The chief river is the Brahmaputra, forming the continuous northern boundary, which is navigable all the year through by steamers and large native boats. Its navigable tributaries comprise the Dhaneswari, Burí Dihing, Disang, and Dikhu, which all flow in a northerly direction from the Nágá Hills. The most signal example of alluvion in the whole Province is afforded by the Majuli *char*, included within the District of Sibságar. This island is said to have been formed by the silt brought down by the Subansirí river from the Himálayas, and deposited in the wide channel of the Brahmaputra. It contains an area of about 400 square miles, almost entirely overgrown with grass and jungle. The fisheries of the District, which are Government property, yield an annual revenue of about £1120 a year. Wild beasts of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, bears, buffaloes, and deer. In 1870-71, £180 was paid to Government for the privilege of capturing wild elephants. The jungle products consist of caoutchouc, lac, bees-wax, and various fibres and dyes. The mineral wealth of the District is said to comprise coal, iron, petroleum, and salt, but none of these have been profitably worked. A little gold dust is washed in several of the hill streams. Some hot springs are situated near the banks of the Dhaneswari.

History.—Síbságar District first rose into prominence as the head-quarters of the Aham dynasty, which ruled Assam for about 400 years before the British annexation. Prior to the advent of the Ahams, the dominant race was the Chutiás, who were of a kindred origin to the Ahams, and only subjugated by them after a fierce contest. At the present day, these two tribes form nearly one-half of the total population. The Ahams, a people of Shan origin, are said to have first made their appearance in Upper Assam in the 14th century, after the downfall of the legendary Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. They gradually spread down the valley of the Brahmaputra, until in the 17th century they were able to hold their own at Gauháti against repeated invasions of the Mughals. It does not appear that they brought any religion with them from their native hills; but in course of years they fell under the influence of Hinduism, and at the same time lost the virtues of military and civil administration, by means of which they had founded their empire. At last, in order to protect themselves against internal dissensions, they were compelled to call in the assistance of the Burmese, who tyrannized over the country with great severity, until they were in their turn driven out by the British in 1823. The original capital of the Ahams was at GARHGAON in this District, on the Dikhu river, a short distance south-east of Síbságar town, where numerous ruins are still to

be seen. The city and its suburbs appear to have extended over many square miles of country; and the royal palace itself was surrounded by a brick wall, about 2 miles in circumference. It has been noticed that one of the many gateways is built of large blocks of stone bearing marks of iron crampings, which show traces that they once belonged to a far more ancient edifice—thus attesting the primitive Hindu traditions of Kámrúp as told in the *Mahábhárata.* The whole is now overgrown with dense jungle; and the natural course of decay has been hastened by the hand of man, for the old bricks are found serviceable on the tea-gardens of the present day. The second Aham capital was at RANGPUR, immediately to the south of Síbságar town, which is said to have been founded about 1790 by Rájá Rudra Sinh, the first Aham prince who submitted himself to the Bráhmans. The ruins of his palace, and of a temple which he built to Jaiságar, still exist amid the deep jungle. To the eldest son of this monarch is assigned the excavation of the great tank, 114 acres in area, around which has been built the civil station of Síbságar. Rangpur continued as the royal residence until the year 1784, when the Aham kingdom began to be dismembered. The Rájá, named Gaurináth, fled before his rebellious subjects, who had advanced against him from the east. He first stopped at Jorhát on the Disái river, in the centre of Síbságar District, but was ultimately compelled to retire to Gauhátí. With British assistance, he was enabled to return to Jorhát, where he died in 1793. Apart from the ruins of successive capitals, the Ahams have left permanent traces of their power in the great lines of embankment running through the country, which are locally known as *álís.* These were constructed by a system of forced labour, and served both as roads and as protections against river floods. The entire method of Aham administration was based upon personal servitude. The country was parcelled out into executive Districts, each of which was under the control of a taskmaster; no money revenue was demanded, but compulsory service was exacted from every individual among the subject races as his contribution to the needs of the State. The recollection of this organized slavery still lives in the minds of the people. At the present day, it is found almost impossible to obtain labourers to work on the roads, or other Government undertakings. The peasantry are willing to take employment on the tea-gardens, when not occupied on their own little plots of rice; but to work for Government is held to involve indelible disgrace. Hence it is that the great works of the Aham period have been suffered to fall into disrepair, and the incursions of the rivers have thrown much good land out of cultivation.

When the British expelled the Burmese and took possession of Assam in 1823, they were indisposed to undertake the responsibilities

of administration beyond what seemed absolutely necessary. A military outpost was stationed at Sadiyá, at the extreme head of the Brahmaputra valley, but the civil government by European officials was not extended farther east than the confines of Nowgong. The tract that now forms Síbságar District, together with the southern portion of Lakhimpur, was handed over to a native ruler, Rájá Purandhar Sinh, who was guaranteed the secure exercise of his authority on condition of paying a tribute of £5000 a year. This unsatisfactory arrangement produced the results which might have been anticipated. The Rájá, protected by the British name from the consequences of his misrule, indulged himself in the most wanton oppressions upon his helpless subjects, and rendered their condition even more miserable than it had been under the Burmese invaders. It is on record that the country became so depopulated, that it was unable to furnish the British tribute. Under these circumstances it was found necessary in 1838 to dispossess Purandhar Sinh, and to place Síbságar under the direct management of an English officer. The early reports of those days are confined to complaints of the extreme misery to which the country was reduced. The tea industry, however, has now brought back prosperity; and at the present time the Síbságar peasants rank among the most contented and wealthy in Assam.

People.—Mr. Robinson, in his *Descriptive Account of Assam* (1840), roughly estimated the population of Síbságar District, which then included great part of Lakhimpur, at 200,000 souls. Another estimate in 1853 gave a total of 211,477. The first regular Census was taken in 1871; and the enumeration, instead of being taken in a single night as in Bengal, was prolonged over the two months of November and December. The results disclosed a total of 296,589 persons, residing in 203 *mauzás* or aggregates of villages, and in 55,604 houses. The area of the District, according to the Survey of 1875, amounts to 2855 square miles, which yields the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 104; *mauzás* per square mile, 0·08; houses per square mile, 19. The average number of persons per *mauzá* is 1461; of persons per house, 5·3. Classified according to sex, there are 154,940 males and 141,649 females; proportion of males, 52·24 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—55,222 boys and 51,404 girls; total children, 106,626, or 36 per cent. of the population. The ethnical division of the people shows—74 Europeans and 6 Eurasians; 227 Bhutiás, 7 Chinese, and 476 Nepálís; 29,352 aborigines; 175,884 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 76,933 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 928 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 12,619 Muhammadans; 83 Burmese. The chief feature in this classification is the large proportion of semi-Hinduized

aborigines, as compared with the rest of Assam. On the one hand, the hill tribes of the northern Himálayas and of the eastern Burmese Mountains are poorly represented; while, on the other, the castes of Bengalí Hindus have not penetrated so far east. The great bulk of the population are pure Assamese, more or less converted to Hinduism. The once dominant race of Ahams, numbering 94,304 souls, still supplies one-third of the total inhabitants. Though they have now sunk to the level of common cultivators, they retain many of their ancient habits and institutions. Some of them eat beef and pork, and also bury instead of burning their dead. Next in number come the Chutiás (31,342), who have already been referred to as of the same original stock as the Ahams, and their predecessors in the government of the Upper Valley of the Brahmaputra. The Kochs (23,965) are members of a tribe whose present headquarters are in the Bengal State of Kuch Behar, but who ruled at one time over the greater part of Assam, before the arrival of the Ahams. The Doms (16,277) are a curious race, who lay claim in Assam to high-caste purity, but reject the ministrations of Bráhmans. All these are classed in the Census Report with the semi-Hinduized aborigines. The aborigines proper include—the Cácháris (15,320), who are largely employed on tea-gardens; 6862 Míris from North Lakhimpur; and a number of minor tribes, of whom many, such as the Kols, Uráons, and Santáls, are imported labourers from Chutiá Nágpur. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans number 12,821, being especially numerous for an Assam District; the Rájputs, 332; the Káyasths, 2117; the Jain traders, from the north-west of India, furnish an aggregate of about 600. The most numerous caste is the Kalitás (26,973), who formed the priesthood for the Kochs, Doms, and Ahams before the introduction of Bráhmanism. The Kalitás now rank as pure Súdras, on a level with the Káyasths, and are generally engaged in agriculture or Government service. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 282,969, or 95·4 per cent.; Musalmáns, 12,619, or 4·3 per cent.; the remainder is made up of 283 Christians (including 203 native converts), 153 Buddhists, and 565 'others.' The Hindus are subdivided into the four following sects:—Tantrik, Bhágvatiyá, Mahápurúshiyá, and Thákuriá. There are five principal *sástrás* or religious institutions of a monastic character, each presided over by its own high priest or *gosáin*, and 83 minor *sástrás*. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by a few followers, who are all immigrants from Bengal. According to the Census Report, the Vaishnavs number 94; the Mataks, who are converts to Vishnuvism from among the aborigines of Lakhimpur, 84; the Gosáins, or religious teachers of the various sects, 407; the Nánaksháhís, or followers of the founder of the Síkh religion, 140. The Muhammadans of Síbságar

are said to be descended partly from artisans introduced by an early Aham Rájá, and partly from soldiers left by the invading Mughal armies. Many of them have joined the Faráizí or reformed sect, but they are not actively fanatical, and have ceased to make proselytes. The native Christians are under the care of a branch of the American Baptist Mission, which has been established in Síbságar since 1840.

The population of the District is entirely rural, being employed either on rice cultivation or the tea-gardens. The only place with a population of more than 5000 is SIBSAGAR TOWN, which contains (1872) 5278 inhabitants. It is situated about 11 miles inland from the south bank of the Brahmaputra, and, besides the houses of the civil officials, possesses a straggling *bázár*, in which a brisk business is conducted during the cold season with the neighbouring hill tribes. JORHAT, on the Disái river in the centre of the District (pop. 1310), is the home of several Márwárí and Muhammadan traders, who supply the wants of the labourers on the tea-gardens. GOLAGHAT, on the Dhaneswari (pop. 1615), is the only seat of river traffic in the District, being accessible to steamers from May to November. The ruins of Garhgáon and Rangpur have been already referred to.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop throughout the District is rice, which furnishes two great harvests in the year. The *sálí*, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, is sown on low lands about June, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in November. Its finer varieties are sometimes comprised under the generic term of *láhí*. The *áhu* or *áus* is sown on high lands about March, and reaped in July, leaving the field ready for a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds. A third crop of rice, called *báo*, is grown on the borders of marshes or the banks of rivers, being sown about April, and reaped in November. This is a long-stemmed variety, and can keep pace in its growth with the rise of flood water. The other crops include Indian corn, several varieties of pulses, mustard grown as an oil-seed, sugar-cane, *pán* or betel-leaf, and cotton and indigo raised only by the hill tribe of Mírís. The *súm* tree is an important object of attention in the neighbourhood of villages, for the sake of the silk-worm that feeds on its leaves. According to the Revenue Survey of 1875, only 298,836 acres, or about one-sixth of the total area of the District, are under cultivation, though the greater part of the remainder is capable of tillage. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is only used for sugar-cane and other special crops. Irrigation is adopted in the case of *sálí* rice, when water can be easily obtained from natural water-courses. It is not customary to allow land to lie fallow. Spare land abounds on all sides, and the present tenures are favourable to the cultivator. As throughout the rest of Assam, the entire soil is the property of the State, and annual leases are granted direct to the cultivators. Under native

rule, the main source of revenue was a sort of capitation tax, raised at the rate of 4s. on each plough, and 2s. on each hoe. The first land settlement, commenced in 1839, assessed the rate of revenue at 1s. 6d. an acre on *rupit* or moist lands, on which *sálí* rice is grown, and 9d. an acre on all other lands. In 1844, these rates were raised respectively to 1s. 10d. and 1s. 4d. At the present time, *bastú* or homestead land pays 6s. an acre; *rupit*, 3s. 9d. an acre; and *faringháti*, on which *áus* rice and other crops are grown, 3s. an acre. The average out-turn of unhusked paddy from an acre of rice land is estimated to amount to about 33 cwts., worth about £4, 10s.

The rate of wages for ordinary unskilled labour is said to have doubled within the past fifteen years, owing to the extension of tea cultivation; and the demand for skilled labour has risen in a still greater proportion. Indeed, labour of all kinds requires to be imported from Bengal. In 1872, a common day-labourer was procurable with difficulty at 6d. a day. Male coolies on the tea-gardens were engaged for 10s. a month, and women for 8s.; but these rates could be almost doubled by taking task-work. A second-rate blacksmith or carpenter received £3 or £4 a month, and a bricklayer £1, 12s. The prices of food grains have risen in like proportion. The following are the rates for 1872, which were somewhat above the average of recent years:—Common rice, 5s. 5d. per cwt.; pulses, from 6s. 10d. to 12s. 3d. per cwt.; oil, £2, 14s. 8d. per cwt.; salt, 16s. 4d. per cwt. In 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, the price of common rice rose to 14s. per cwt.

Síbságar District is not especially exposed to either of the calamities of flood or drought. The valley of the Brahmaputra is subject to annual inundation, owing to the old embankments having been allowed to fall into a bad state of repair; but it is not known that the general harvest of the District has ever been affected thereby. Partial drought is sometimes caused by deficiency of local rainfall. The season of 1857 is still remembered by the people as having resulted in a scarcity from this cause, which raised the price of common unhusked paddy to 7s. 6d. per cwt. The people mainly depend for their food supply on the *sálí* rice crop; and if this were to fail, it would be difficult to supply its place either from the other crops or by importation.

Manufactures, etc.—The local industries are limited to the weaving of silk and cotton cloth, the making of domestic utensils from brass and bell metal, and a coarse description of pottery. The silk cloth is woven of various degrees of fineness, and is divided into three classes: —*mujánkurí*, the finest of all, from the cocoons of a worm fed on the *adákurí* tree; *mugá*, the best known, from a worm fed on the *súm* tree; and *eriá*, which is very coarse, from a worm fed on the castor-oil plant. The finest raw silk has been sold for as much as £1, 16s. per

pound; but the manufacture has greatly fallen off in recent years, owing to the competition of cotton piece-goods imported from Europe. The braziers are almost entirely supported by a system of advances made by Márwárí capitalists, at the rate of 6d. per pound for brass, and 1s. per pound for bell metal.

The trade of the District, also, is mainly confined to the Márwárís. The principal seats of commerce are Jorhát, Golaghát, and Síbságar town. The two latter places are the resort of large numbers of Nágás during the cold season, who bring down cotton and vegetables to barter for salt, fish, poultry, and cattle. Cotton is commonly exchanged for half its weight of salt. There are no large annual fairs, similar to those held in Lower Assam. The principal exports from the District are tea, silk, mustard seed, cotton, and jungle products; the imports are salt, oil, opium, piece-goods, and miscellaneous hardware.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is largely carried on by European capital and under European supervision; and in this industry Síbságar ranks as the first District in Assam Proper, being only surpassed in the whole of India by Cáchár. The Assam Tea Company, which commenced its operations in Lakhimpur, had opened fifteen factories in Síbságar by 1852, with 2500 acres under cultivation, and an out-turn of 267,000 pounds. Soon after that date, many private gardens were taken up by Europeans and natives; and in 1869, after the recovery from the panic caused by excessive speculation, there were 110 gardens in cultivation, managed by 53 European and 233 native assistants, and employing a monthly average of 13,399 imported and 790 local labourers. The statistics for 1874 show 22,573 acres under cultivation, out of a total of 108,050 acres taken up, mostly in fee-simple; and an out-turn of 4,976,419 lbs. of tea, being an increase of 554,898 lbs. on the previous year.

The chief means of communication in the District are afforded by the Brahmaputra and Dhaneswarí rivers, both navigable by steamers. The roads all follow the lines of the *álís* or old embankments constructed by forced labour under the Aham kings. The Trunk Road or Seoní *álí*, maintained by the Public Works Department, runs the entire length of the District for a course of 133 miles. The aggregate length of the District roads in 1872 was returned at 404 miles, of which 305 miles were classed as important. Wheeled conveyances are rarely used, owing to the want of good bridges.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total revenue of Síbságar District amounted to £93,853, of which the land tax contributed £43,976, or 47 per cent., and *ábkárí* or excise £42,090, or ·46 per cent.; the expenditure was £35,194, or about two-fifths of the revenue, and the item of 'cost and conveyance of opium' absorbed £13,842, which is properly a debit against the revenue from excise. As through-

out the rest of Assam, owing to the circumstance that an assessment is made annually with the cultivators, the land tax is a very elastic source of revenue, having increased from £7013 in 1840 to £11,120 in 1850, and to £48,758 in 1875. In the last-mentioned year, there were 3 covenanted European officers stationed in the District, and 6 magisterial and 11 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, the District is divided into 4 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force consisted of 283 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £4783; showing 1 policeman to every 8·42 square miles of area, or to every 1048 of the population, and an average cost of £1, 19s. 7d. per square mile and 4d. per head of population. There is no municipal police or village watch in the District. In the same year, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 841, or 1 to every 352 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. There is 1 jail at Síbságar town, and 2 Subdivisional lock-ups at Golaghát and Jorhát. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners was 94, of whom 2 were females; the labouring convicts numbered 83. The total cost of the jail amounted to £761, or £8, 3s. 6d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £92, or an average of £5, 1s. 8d. for each manufacturing prisoner. The death-rate among the prisoners was 30·8 per thousand, as compared with an average of 58·5 during a period of ten years.

As is the case in Assam generally, education has made but little progress among the people. In 1856, the number of schools in the District was only 12, attended by 794 pupils. The figures for 1860 show a positive decrease; but by 1870 the number of schools had risen to 29, and the pupils to 1084. The reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*, have produced scanty effect in this part of the country. In 1873, there were 39 schools under inspection, attended by 1440 pupils, showing 1 school to every 73 square miles, and 4·8 pupils to every thousand of the population. In that year, the total expenditure was £897, towards which Government contributed £619. The chief educational establishments are the Government English School at Síbságar town, attended by 133 pupils, and maintained at a cost of £361; and the Normal School, with 13 pupils. The American Baptist Mission, apart from its primary schools, possesses 2 printing presses, and publishes a monthly newspaper in the Assamese language, called the *Arunodaya*, first issued in 1846, whose special object is to promote the extension of education among the people. A second newspaper, the *Dharma Prakás*, was started in 1870 in connection with the Auniaháti *sástrá*, the chief Hindu religious house in the District.

For administrative purposes, the District is divided into the 3

Subdivisions of Síbságar, Jorhát, and Golaghát, and into 5 *thánás* or police circles. The number of *mauzás* or village units, each under a *mauzádár* or revenue official, is 135. The only municipality in the District is Síbságar town, with a population (1872) of 5278, and a municipal revenue in 1871 of £702; incidence of taxation, 2s. 8d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Síbságar, like that of the rest of the Assam valley, is comparatively mild and temperate. Scarcely a single month passes without some rain, but the year may be roughly divided into two seasons—the dry and cold season, extending from October to the end of April, and the hot and rainy season, occupying the remainder of the year. Dense fogs prevail in the early mornings from November to February. The prevailing direction of the wind is from the north-east, and it seldom rises above the strength of a moderate breeze. The mean annual temperature is stated to be 74° F. The rainfall during a period of fifteen years has averaged 94·16 inches a year.

The prevailing diseases are fevers of a remittent and intermittent type, dysentery and diarrhœa, pulmonic affections, rheumatism, cutaneous disorders, leprosy, elephantiasis, and goitre. It has been observed that in recent years the endemic fever in Síbságar town has become more susceptible of treatment, owing to the adoption of sanitary improvements. Sporadic cases of cholera occur almost every year; and in 1869, this disease made its appearance in an epidemic form from February to June, and is reported to have carried off about 700 persons. Epidemic small-pox breaks out about every fourth or fifth year, being propagated by the practice of inoculation. In 1874, out of a total number of 3464 deaths reported by the *mauzádárs*, 1593 were assigned to fever, 780 to bowel complaints, 337 to cholera, and 88 to small-pox. In the same year, the vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate of 29·7 per thousand in the rural area, and 18·4 in the urban area, which is conterminous with the town of Síbságar. Since 1869, a terrible epizootic has been raging among the cattle and buffaloes of the District. It is identified with the rinderpest of Europe, and is supposed to have been introduced from Bengal. The mortality has been very great, about two-thirds of the total number of cattle in the District having been carried off.

Síbságar.—Subdivision of Síbságar District, Assam. Pop. (1872), 103,237. It comprises the 2 police circles of Síbságar and Bírtolá.

Síbságar.—Chief town and civil headquarters of Síbságar District, Assam; situated 11 miles from the south bank of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 59′ 10″ N., and long. 94° 38′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 5278; municipal revenue (1871-72), £702; rate of taxation, 2s. 8d. per head. Síbságar was one of the capitals of the Aham dynasty, shortly after their conversion to Hinduism. There still exists a magnificent tank, covering

an area of 114 acres, and several old temples on its bank. These works are said to have been constructed by Rájá Síb Sinh about the year 1722. There are but few houses in the native town which are not in a dilapidated condition. The *bázár*, consisting merely of mud huts, runs along both banks of the Dikhu river. The public buildings and the houses of the European residents are built upon the embankment of the tank. Síbságar is the seat of some river trade. The exports are cotton and rice; the imports, piece-goods and brass-ware. During the cold season, parties of Nágás from the hills bring down cotton and vegetables, to barter for salt, poultry, cattle, and dried fish.

Siddhaur.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Partábganj, on the east by Surájpur, on the south by Haidargarh and Subeha, and on the west by Satrikh *parganás*. Area, 141 square miles, of which 95 square miles are under cultivation. Government land revenue, £11,986. The *parganá* is divided into two sections, north and south. Pop. (1869), 100,937, viz. Hindus, 83,941, and Muhammadans, 16,996. Out of the total of 168 villages, 66 are held under *talukdárí*, 54 under *zamíndárí*, and 48 under *pattidárí* tenure. The tract was originally in the hands of the Bhars, who were expelled by the Muhammadans at the time of the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd. Sayyids still form a great part of the population. The *parganá* was first formed in the time of Akbar.

Siddhaur.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh, and headquarters of Siddhaur *parganá*; situated 16 miles west of the civil station, in lat. 26° 46′ N., and long. 81° 26′ 10″ E. Pop. (1869), 2203. School, registration office, and post office. The village contains an old Sivaite temple, and a Muhammadan mosque and tomb, in memory of one Kázi Kutab, at which fairs are held on occasions of the *Siva-ratri* and *I'd* and *Bakr 'Id* festivals.

Siddheshwara.—Peak in the Bráhmagiri range of mountains, a section of the Western Gháts in the territory of Coorg. Lat. 12° 21′ N., long. 76° 3′ E. This hill guards the pass by which the highlands of Coorg are entered from the east. On the summit stands a temple dedicated to Siva.

Siddheswar.—Village at the foot of the Sarishpur or Siddheswar range, which forms the boundary between the Districts of Cáchár and Sylhet, Assam, on the south or left bank of the Barák river. There is a celebrated Hindu temple here; and about the 18th March an annual fair is held, attended by 3000 persons. At the same time, a religious gathering for bathing takes place on the opposite bank of the river.

Sidhout (*Sidháwat*).—Headquarters of Sidhout *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras; situated on the Penner (Pennár or Ponniár) river, in lat. 14° 27′ 56″ N., and long. 79° 0′ 40″ E. Pop. (1871), 3759, residing in 860 houses. The town formerly belonged

to Chitwáil State, and later to the Patháns of Cuddapah; it was taken by Haidar Alí in 1779. In early British times, it was the headquarters of the entire District. The town is notable for its melons.

Sidhpur.—Town in Baroda State, Guzarát, Bombay; situated on the Saraswatí river, in lat. 23° 55′ 30″ N., long. 72° 26′ E. Pop. (1872), 13,534. Sidhpur is a very old town, and a place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Sidlagáttá.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 163 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated. Pop. (1871), 91,849, namely, 89,097 Hindus, 2656 Muhammadans, and 96 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,187, or 4s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Forms the upper valley of the Pápaghni river.

Sidlagáttá.—Municipal town in Kolár District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 23′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 54′ 41″ E., 30 miles north-west of Kolár town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 7009, namely, 6207 were Hindus and 802 Muhammadans. Said to have been founded in 1524 by Sivangi Gauda, a freebooter, whose family extended their power, and held the place for 87 years. Afterwards it passed successively through the hands of the Marhattás, the Mughals, and the *pálegár* of Chik-ballapur.

Sidlí.—One of the Dwárs or lowland tracts forming the Eastern Dwárs Subdivision of Goalpára District, Assam. Area, 361 square miles; pop. (1870), 12,696; forest area, 74·37 square miles, including several valuable forests of *sál* timber; cultivated area, 32·70 square miles. In 1870, a settlement was made with the Rájá at a land revenue of £1939; but this amount was never actually collected, and the estate was forthwith placed under the Court of Wards, who have equally failed to realize the demand.

Sígúr Ghát, the corrected spelling for SEGHUR (*q.v.*).

Sihonda.—Ancient and decayed town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the bank of the Ken river; distant from Bánda town 11 miles south-east. Pop. (1872), 1477, chiefly Muhammadans. Local tradition declares that the town possessed great importance during the heroic period; but the remains belong chiefly or entirely to Muhammadan times. Capital of an important Division under the Mughals. In 1630 A.D., the rebel Khán Jahán fell at this place in battle against the imperial troops. Sihonda has been gradually declining since the days of Aurangzeb. It is said to have once contained 700 mosques and 900 wells; all the former have fallen to pieces except 4, and most of the latter are now choked up. Ruins of a large fort on a neighbouring hill; temple to Deví Angaleswari, crowns another height near the town. *Tahsíli* school.

Sihor.—Town in Bhaunagar State, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 42′ N., and long. 72° 1′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 10,028.

Sihor.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India.—*See* SEHORE.

Sihorá.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 14 square miles. The chief is named Suda Parmar Nar Sinhjí. Estimated revenue in 1875, £1600; of which £480 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Sihorá.—Central *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Area, 1196 square miles; pop. (1872), 152,210, residing in 705 villages or townships and 34,915 houses.

Sihorá.—Town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 29′ N., and long. 80° 9′ E., 27 miles from Jabalpur city, on the road from Jabalpur to Mírzápur, and 4 miles north of the Hiran river. Pop. (1872), 3988, chiefly agricultural. Sihorá does a brisk trade in grain and country produce.

Sihorá (*Tirora*).—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 24′ N., and long. 79° 58′ E., 30 miles north-east of Bhandára town. Pop. (1872), 2634. Cotton cloth of inferior quality is manufactured. A large tank, south of the town, always contains water. Sihorá has a large Government school and a police outpost.

Sijakpur.—State in Bombay.—*See* SEJAKPUR.

Sijáwal.—*Táluk* of Lárkhána Sub-District, Shikárpur, Sind. Area, 192 square miles; pop. (1872), 15,107. Total revenue (1873-74), £6577.

Siju.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, on the Sameswarí river, with a considerable population engaged in fishing. In the neighbourhood are coal-mines, which were at one time worked by the Rájá of Susáng.

Sikandarábád (*Secunderábád*).—North-western *tahsíl* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; stretching inland from the east bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and watered by two branches of the Ganges Canal. The East Indian Railway traverses the *tahsíl* from end to end, with two stations (at Sikandarábád and Dádri). Area of *tahsíl*, 524 square miles, of which 370 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 237,374. Land revenue, £28,996; total Government revenue, £32,173; rental paid by cultivators, £76,132.

Sikandarábád (*Secunderábád*).—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Sikandarábád *tahsíl*. Pop. (1872), 18,349, including 10,933 Hindus and 7395 Muhammadans. Situated on the Delhi branch of the Grand Trunk Road, in lat. 28° 27′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 44′ 40″ E., 10 miles east of Bulandshahr town. Two good *bázárs*, the centre of the local trade in cotton, sugar, and grain. Founded by Sikandar Lodi in 1498; headquarters of a *mahál* under Akbar; centre of the fief of Najíb-ud-daulá. Saádat Khán, Viceroy of Oudh, attacked and defeated the Marhattá force here in 1736. The Ját army of Bhartpur encamped at Sikandarábád in 1764, but fled across the Jumna (Jamuná) on the death of Suráj Mall and defeat of Jaháwar Sinh. Station of Perron's

brigade under the Marhattás. Occupied by Colonel James Skinner after the battle of Alígarh. During the Mutiny of 1857, the neighbouring Gújars, Rájputs, and Muhammadans attacked and plundered Sikandarábád; but Colonel Greathed's column relieved the town on September 27th, 1857. Prosperity returned with the establishment of order, and Sikandarábád is now one of the most flourishing places in the District. There is a station on the East Indian Railway, 4 miles south of the town, with which it is connected by a metalled road. *Tahsíli* and police station outside the town in a fortified building; charitable dispensary; Anglo-vernacular school; branch of Church of England Mission. Several handsome mosques and temples. Residence of Munshí Lakshman Sarúp, a large landholder and honorary magistrate, and of Munshi Hargopál, a well-known Persian and Urdu poet. Manufacture of *pagrís* (head-dresses). Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1519; from taxes, £960, or 1s. 0⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sikandarábád.—Town and cantonment in the Nizám's Dominions. —*See* SECUNDERABAD.

Sikandarpur.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Pariar, on the east by Unao, on the south by Harha, and on the west by Cawnpore District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 58 square miles, or 37,023 acres. Chief products, barley and sugarcane. Government land revenue, £6087, or an average assessment of 3s. 3⅜d. per acre. The *parganá* comprises 51 villages, of which 48 are in the hands of Purihar Kshattriyas or Rájputs. The history of this clan is thus described in Mr. Elliott's *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 58-60:—

'The present Purihars in Unao District inhabit the *parganá* of Sarosi, or, as it has recently become habitual to call it, Sikandarpur. According to their own traditions, they came from a place called Jigini (which is not to be found on the map), or Srínagar, *i.e.* Kashmír. From that high hill country they were driven—we know not by what cause—to inhabit the sandy plains of Márwár. Expelled thence, they were broken into innumerable little principalities, which found no abiding place, and have undergone continual changes, till we meet with a small portion of the clan who settled, comparatively a short time ago, in a little corner of Oudh; and even here the name of the beautiful valley from which they came ten centuries ago is still common in the mouths of men.

'The story of the settling of the ancestors of the clan in Sarosi is thus told. About three hundred years ago, in the time of Humáyun, Emperor of Delhi, a Dikhit girl from Purenda was married to the son of the Purihar Rájá, who lived at Jigini, across the Jumna. The bridegroom came with a large escort of his friends and brotherhood to celebrate the marriage, and the party on their journey passed through Sarosi. As they sat down around a well (the site of which is still shown), they

asked who were the lords of the fort which stood not far off. They were told that the fort was held by Dhobis (washermen) and other Súdras who owned the neighbouring country. The procession then went on to Purenda, and returning, conducted the bride to her home. Just before the *Holi* festival, a party, headed by Bhagé Sinh, returned, waited for the evening of that riotous feast, and then, when the guards of the fort were heavy with wine, and no danger was looked for, suddenly attacked and slaughtered them, and made themselves masters of the fort and the surrounding country.

'Bhagé Sinh had four sons, and they divided the eighty-four villages he had conquered at his death. Asis and Salhu, the two eldest sons, took the largest portion of the estate—twenty villages falling to the former, and to the latter forty-two. The third son, Manik, was a devotee, and refused to be troubled with worldly affairs. All he asked for was one village on the banks of the Ganges, where he might spend his life in worship, and wash away his sins three times a day in the holy stream. The youngest son, Bhuledhán, was quite a boy at the time of his father's death, and took what share his brothers chose to give him, and they do not seem to have treated him badly.

'The law of primogeniture did not exist among the family, and every son, as he grew up and married, claimed his right to a separate share of his father's inheritance; and thus the ancestral estate constantly dwindled as fresh slices were cut off it, till at last the whole family were a set of impoverished gentlemen, who kept up none of the dignity which had belonged to the first conquerors, Bhagé Sinh and his sons. For six generations they stagnated thus, no important event marking their history till the time of Hira Sinh. The family property in his time had grown very small, and he had five sons to divide it amongst; and, to add to his misfortunes, he was accused of some crime, thrown into prison at Faizábád, and loaded with chains. With the chains on his legs he escaped, arrived safely at Sarosi, and lay in hiding there. His pride being thus broken, he resolved to send his third son, Kalandar Sinh, to take service in the Company's army. He rose to be Subahdár Major in the 49th Regiment of Native Infantry; and in this position, through his supposed influence with the Resident, became a very considerable man. He knew that as long as he was at hand, no *chakladár* or governor would venture to treat the Purihar *zamíndárs* with injustice; but on his death they would be again at the mercy of the local authorities. He therefore collected all the members of the brotherhood who were descended from Asis, and persuaded them to mass their divided holdings nominally into one large estate, of which his nephew Ghuláb Sinh should be the representative *tálukdár;* so that while in reality each small shareholder retained sole possession of his own share, they should present the appearance of a powerful and united *táluk*, making Ghuláb

Sinh their nominal head. Thus the *chakladárs* would be afraid to touch a man who seemed to hold so large an estate, though in reality he only enjoyed a small portion of it. The brotherhood consented to this, and from 1840 till British annexation the estate was held in the name of Ghuláb Sinh alone, and they had no further trouble from the oppressions of the *chakladárs*.'

Sikandra. — Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 12′ 59″ N., and long. 77° 59′ 34″ E., 5 miles north-west of Agra city, on the Muttra road. Chiefly noticeable as containing the tomb of Akbar, commenced by that monarch, and finished by his son Jahángír in 1613. Fergusson describes the mausoleum as the most characteristic of Akbar's buildings. It is quite unlike any other tomb in India erected before or since, and the design is believed by Fergusson to be borrowed from a Hindu, or, more correctly, a Buddhist model. It is surrounded by an extensive garden of 40 acres, still kept up, approached on each side by archways of red sandstone, the principal gateway being of magnificent proportions.

'In the centre of this garden, on a raised platform, stands the tomb itself, of a pyramidal form. The lower terrace measures 320 feet each way, exclusive of the angle towers. It is 30 feet in height, and pierced by ten great arches on each face, and with a larger entrance, adorned with a mosaic of marble in the centre.

'On this terrace stands another far more ornate, measuring 186 feet on each side, and 14 feet 9 inches in height. A third and fourth, of similar design, and respectively 15 feet 2 inches and 14 feet 6 inches high, stand on this; all these being of red sandstone. Within and above the last is a white marble enclosure, 157 feet each way, or externally just half the length of the lowest terrace, its outer wall entirely composed of marble trellis-work of the most beautiful patterns. Inside, it is surrounded by a colonnade or cloister of the same material, in the centre of which, on a raised platform, is the tombstone of the founder, a splendid piece of the most beautiful Arabesque tracery. This, however, is not the true burial-place; but the mortal remains of the great king repose under a far plainer tombstone in a vaulted chamber in the basement, 35 feet square, exactly under the simulated tomb that adorns the summit of the mausoleum.

'The total height of the building now is a little more than 100 feet to the top of the angle pavilions; and a central dome, 30 or 40 feet higher, which is the proportion that the base gives, seems just what is wanted to make this tomb as beautiful in outline and in proportion as it is in detail. Had it been so completed, it certainly would have ranked next to the Táj among Indian mausolea.'

An asylum was established at Sikandra in 1837-38, for the orphans whose parents had perished in the terrible famine of that year.

Sikandrapur.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the southern bank of the river Gogra. Area, 546 square miles, of which 329 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 281,809. Land revenue, £25,352; total Government revenue, £27,931; rental paid by cultivators, £62,487.

Sikandra Ráo.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; consisting chiefly of a fertile upland plain, watered in every direction by distributaries of the Ganges Canal. Area, 342 square miles, of which 233 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 193,611. Land revenue, £27,883; total Government revenue, £30,672; rental paid by cultivators, £59,411.

Sikandra Ráo.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Sikandra Ráo *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 27° 41′ 10″ N., and long. 78° 25′ 15″ E., on the Cawnpore road, 23 miles south-east of Koil. Pop. (1872), 12,642, consisting of 7598 Hindus and 5044 Muhammadans. Squalid, poor-looking town, on a low, badly drained site. A great swamp spreads eastward, attaining a length of 4 miles during the rains. Founded in the 15th century by Sikandar Lodi, and afterwards given in *jágír* to Ráo Khán, an Afghán, from which circumstances the town derives its compound name. During the Mutiny of 1857, Ghaus Khán of Sikandra Ráo was one of the leading rebels, and held Koil as deputy for Walidád Khán of Málágarh. Kundir Sinh, a Pundír Rájput, did good service on the British side, and held the *parganá* as Názim. Mosque dating from Akbar's time; ruined house in the town, once the residence of the Muhammadan governor. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office, school, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £797; from taxes, £632, or 1s. per head of population (12,530) within municipal limits.

Sikhar.—Town and fort in Benares District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Ganges, nearly opposite Chunár, in lat. 25° 8′ N., and long. 82° 53′ E. Garrisoned in 1781 by the rebellious Rájá Cháit Sinh, but stormed by the British under Lieutenant Polhill.

Sikkim.—Native State in the Eastern Himálaya Mountains; bounded on the north and north-east by Thibet, on the south-east by Bhután, on the south by the British District of Dárjíling, and on the west by Nepál. Situated between 27° 9′ and 27° 58′ N. lat., and between 88° 4′ and 89° E. long.; covering an area of about 1550 square miles, with an estimated population of 7000. The capital is Tumlung, where the Rájá resides during the winter and spring, usually going to his estates at Chumbi in Thibet in summer to avoid the heavy rains of Sikkim. The Thibetan name for Sikkim is *Dingjing* or *Demo-jong*, and for the people *Deunjong Mars;* the Gúrkha name for the people of Sikkim (which has been adopted by English writers) is *Lepcha;* but they call themselves *Rong*, according to Mr. Clements Markham.

Physical Aspects.—The whole of Sikkim is situated at a considerable elevation within the Himálayan mountain-zone. Between Dárjíling and Tumlung, the mountains are generally lower than those of Dárjíling itself. North of Tumlung, the passes into Thibet have been recently visited by Mr. Blanford and Mr. Edgar, and found to be of great height. The most southerly of these passes (as described by Mr. Markham, in the introduction to his *Thibet*, second edition, 1879) is that of Jelep-la, about 50 miles beyond Tumlung, 13,000 feet above sea level. The two next to the north are those of Guatiula and Yak-la, the latter 14,000 feet high: these, Mr. Markham says, are rarely interrupted by snow for many days, and form the easiest route into the Chumbi valley of Thibet. Further to the north is the Cho-la Pass, 15,000 feet high, on the direct road from Tumlung to Chumbi. The Yak-la, Cho-la, and Jelep-la Passes cross the lofty spur of the Himálayas separating the Chumbi and Tísta valleys. Then comes the Tankra-la Pass, 16,083 feet high, the most snowy pass in Sikkim.

Sikkim is drained by the river TISTA, and its affluents the Lachen, the Lachung, the Búri Ranjít, the Moing, the Rangri, and the Rangchu. The Am-machu rises near Parijong, at the foot of the Chamalhari Peak (23,929 feet), and flows through the Chumbi valley, which is a strip of Thibetan territory separating Sikkim from Bhután. In this lower part of its course, the Am-machu passes into the British District of Jalpáiguri, under the name of the TORSHA. The rivers of Sikkim generally run in very deep ravines between the mountains; and the ascent from the bank, for the first thousand feet, is almost precipitous. All the rivers are very rapid. According to Dr. Hooker's measurement, the Ranjít, in a course of 23 miles, between the *ghát* above the Kulhait river and that at the cane-bridge below Dárjíling, falls 987 feet; whilst the Tísta falls 821 feet in about 10 miles, and flows in places at the rate of 14 miles an hour.

Near Mintugong are some copper mines, worked by Nepálese. Mr. Edgar (*Report on a Visit to Sikkim and the Thibetan Frontier*, 1874, p. 84) found that the Bhutiá population are superstitiously averse to any search for metals below the earth's surface; and consequently little is known of the mineral resources of the country. Mr. Edgar, however, was of opinion that every mine is abandoned long before the vein of ore has been exhausted.

The valleys and slopes of this mountainous land are clothed with dense jungle, the vegetation in which varies, according to the elevation, from the cotton, banian, fig, and other tropical trees, which are found in the lower zones, to the fir, rhododendron, and dwarf bamboo, which appear above the level of 10,000 feet. The bamboo grows to enormous size, often attaining a diameter of 7 to 9 inches. The canes, which are largely used in the construction of the well-known

Himálayan cane-bridges, grow principally in the bamboo jungles. The cane is found of the diameter of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches; and a single piece was once traced through the jungle by Colonel Gawler (*Sikkim; Mountain and Jungle Warfare*, 1873, p. 13) for a distance of 80 yards without finding the end. The wild animals are the same as those found in the jungles of DARJILING. Travellers in Sikkim suffer greatly from the *pipsa*, and from the leeches which abound everywhere. Colonel Gawler writes of them: 'The jungles are infested with leeches, which penetrate loosely woven clothes, and deprive the wearer of a good deal of blood before he finds them out. They get far up the noses of horses, goats, etc., and cannot be removed without subjecting the poor animal to a couple of days without water, which, being afterwards offered to him, the leeches also want to drink, and may be seized. If the leeches are allowed to remain, the animals become reduced to a skeleton.'

History.—Sikkim was known to early European travellers, such as Horace della Penna and Samuel Van de Putte, under the name of *Bramashon* (*see* Markham's *Thibet*, p. 64); whilst Bogle called it *Demojong*. Local traditions assert that the ancestors of the Mahárájás of Sikkim originally came from the neighbourhood of Lhasa in Thibet, and settled at Gantak. About the middle of the 16th century, the head of the family was named Pencho Namgay; and to him repaired three Thibetan monks, professors of the *Dupka* (or 'Red Cap') sect of Buddhism, who were disgusted at the predominance of the *Galukpa* sect in Thibet. These Lamas, according to Mr. Edgar's *Report*, succeeded in converting the Lepchas of Sikkim to their own faith, and in making Pencho Namgay Rájá of the land. The *avatárs* of two of these Lamas are now the heads, respectively, of the great monasteries of Pemiongchi and Tassiding. In 1788, the Gúrkhas invaded Sikkim, in the governorship of the Morang, and only retired, in 1789, on the Thibetan Government ceding to them a piece of territory at the head of the Kuti Pass. But in 1792, on a second invasion of Thibetan territory by the Gúrkhas, an immense Chinese army advanced to the support of the Thibetans, defeated the Gúrkhas, and dictated terms to them almost at the gates of Khatmandu. On the breaking out of the Nepál war in 1814, Major Latter, at the head of a British force, occupied the Morang, and formed an alliance with the Rájá of Sikkim, who gladly seized the opportunity of revenging himself on the Gúrkhas. At the close of the war, in 1816, the Rájá was rewarded by a considerable accession of territory, which had been ceded to the British by Nepál, and by the usual guarantee of protection. In February 1835, the Rájá made a formal cession of Dárjíling to the British, and received a pension of £300 per annum in acknowledgment thereof. There was, however, a standing cause of quarrel between the Rájá and the paramount power, due to the prevalence of slavery in Sikkim: the Rájá's subjects were

inveterate kidnappers, and the Rájá himself was most anxious to obtain from the British authorities the restoration of runaway slaves. With some absurd notion of enforcing the latter demand, two gentlemen (Dr. Campbell, the Superintendent of Dárjíling, and Dr. Hooker, the famous naturalist) were seized in 1849, whilst travelling in Sikkim, and detained for six weeks. As a punishment for this outrage, the Rájá's pension was stopped, and a piece of territory, including the lower course of the Tísta and the Sikkim *tarái*, was annexed. The practice, however, of kidnapping Bengáli subjects of the British Crown was not discontinued; and two specially gross cases, in 1860, led to an order from Calcutta, that the Sikkim territory, north of the Rammán river and west of the Búri Ranjít, should be occupied until restitution was made. Colonel Gawler, at the head of a British force, with the Hon. Ashley Eden as envoy, advanced into Sikkim, and proceeded to Tumlung, when the Rájá was forced to make full restitution, and to sign another treaty, in March 1861, which secured the rights of free trade, of protection for travellers, and of road-making. Since the ratification of this treaty, relations with Sikkim have been uniformly friendly, and the country has been repeatedly explored by travellers, who have followed in the footsteps of Dr. Hooker. In 1873, the Rájá of Sikkim, accompanied by his brother and minister, Changzed Rabu (a man of great abilities and predominating influence), and other members of his family, paid a visit to the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal at Dárjíling; and in the following winter, Mr. Edgar, C.S.I., returned the Rájá's visit, as the representative of the Bengal Government, and obtained the materials for the valuable *Report* quoted above.

Population, etc.—The population of Sikkim was estimated by Dr. Campbell at 7000; of whom about 3000 are Lepchas, 2000 Bhutias, and 1000 Limbus. Eastward of the Tísta, Colonel Gawler found some Thibetans. The Buddhist monks—each monastery under its own head Lama—form a numerous and influential section of the population. The chief villages are Tumlung (the capital) and Gantak; the chief monasteries are those of Labrong near Tumlung, Pemiongchi, and Tassiding. The head of the Labrong monastery is called the Kupgain Lama; and Mr. Edgar states that he is also the superior of Pemiongchi, and of nearly two-thirds of the monasteries of Sikkim. On the Tumlung Hill, besides the Rájá's palace, there are a number of other substantially built houses belonging to the various officials of the State. Each house is surrounded by some cultivated land, in which are generally a few clumps of bamboos or fruit-trees. During the rainy season, many of these houses are vacant, the officials being absent with the Rájá at Chumbi in Thibet. The house of the Kázi at Gantak is described as 'a very ornamental building of wattle and dab, raised on stout posts.'

Agriculture, Land Tenures, and Revenue System.—The chief cultivated crops in the valleys and in the clearings on the hills of Sikkim are wheat, buckwheat, barley, *maruá*, maize, and a little rice; but no more grain is grown than suffices for local consumption. Cardamoms and oil-seeds are cultivated in the low valleys in the extreme west of the State. Plantains, oranges, and other fruits are grown in the gardens. Cattle and ponies are imported from Thibet. Between Pemiongchi and the little Ranjít, there is a curious tract of level country, described by Mr. Edgar as a great even ledge, some square miles in extent, with hills rising abruptly from it on three sides, whilst on the fourth side there is a precipitous fall of many hundred feet. The soil of this plain is exceedingly rich, as it catches all the silt of the upper hills; and every inch of it is highly cultivated, chiefly with cardamoms, oil-seeds, and other valuable crops.

Mr. Edgar gives the following interesting account of the revenue system and land tenures:—

'There are twelve Kázis in Sikkim, and several other officers with various names exercise jurisdiction over specific tracts of land. Each of these officers assesses the revenue payable by all the people settled on the lands within his jurisdiction, and, as far as I can make out, keeps the greater portion for himself, paying over to the Rájá a certain fixed contribution. At the same time, he has no proprietary right in the lands, though the Kázis have at least a kind of hereditary title to their office. The Kázis and other officers exercise limited civil and criminal jurisdiction within the lands the revenue of which they collect, all important cases being referred to the Rájá, and decided by Changzed (the minister) and the Diwáns, who are at present three in number. The cultivators have no title to the soil, and a man can settle down and cultivate any land he may find unoccupied without any formality whatever; and when once he has occupied the land, no one but the Rájá can turn him out. But the Rájá can eject him at any time; and if he should cease to occupy the land, he would not retain any lien upon it. There is a kind of tenant-right, however, under which cultivators are enabled to dispose of unexhausted improvements. Thus, as it was explained to me, a man who has terraced a piece of hillside could not sell the land, but is allowed to sell the right of using the terraces. This custom is acknowledged not to be absolutely a right, but more of the nature of an indulgence on the part of the Rájá, by whom it was allowed to grow up for the sake of convenience.

'The land is not assessed, and pays no revenue. The assessment is on the revenue-payer personally. I think that in theory he is allowed the use of the Rájá's land in order that he may live and be able to render to the Rájá the services which he is bound to perform as the Rájá's live chattel; and possibly if the system were carried to theoretical

perfection, he would be bound to give over to the Rájá all the net produce of the land—that is, all the fruit of his labour beyond what might be actually necessary to support himself and his family. In practice, the subject is only bound to give a certain portion of his labour, or of the fruit of his labour, to the State; and when he does not give actual service, the amount of his property is roughly assessed, and his contribution to the State fixed accordingly; but such assessment is made without the slightest reference to the amount of land occupied by the subject. The value of his wives and children, slaves, cattle, furniture, etc., are all taken into account, but not the extent of his fields.' The Lamas are not bound to labour for the Rájá, and they pay no dues of any kind, no matter how much land may be cultivated by themselves or their bondsmen.

Commerce, etc.—There are several trade routes through Sikkim, from the British District of Dárjíling into Thibet; but owing partly to the natural difficulties of the country, and partly to the jealousy of the Thibetans, these are not much used. At Rangpo-tang, on the Tísta, and at other points, there are good cane-bridges, and in some places there are raft-ferries; but all roads are mere hill bridle-paths, and communication is exceedingly imperfect and difficult. The *Report* of the British envoy in 1861 stated that a considerable trade between Bengal and Thibet would be the almost certain result of improved communications through Sikkim; the Thibetans exporting gold, silver, ponies, musk, borax, wool, turquoises, silk, and *manjit* or madder, in exchange for broadcloth, bleached goods, tobacco, and pearls. In addition to this transit trade, Sikkim supplies ponies, sheep, and jungle produce to the British territory of Dárjíling, and imports therefrom some British manufactures, tobacco, etc. A registration station has been established at Ranjít. In 1876-77, the total exports from Sikkim into Dárjíling were valued at £80,265, of which timber alone represented £70,870; the total imports were valued at £14,164, chiefly indigo (£6600), cattle (£2322), metals (£1773), piece-goods (£1357), tobacco (£967). In 1877-78, the registered exports fell to £1822, and the imports to £1659.

Climate and Medical Aspects.—The ranges between Dárjíling and Tumlung are lower than Dárjíling itself, and generally less cool; whilst the deep narrow valleys of most of the rivers have a hot and stifling climate, notorious for its malaria and jungle-fever. The rainfall, like that of Dárjíling, is very heavy. There is usually a little dulness, and perhaps rain, late in December and early in January; after which the weather remains bright and clear until May, when storms, growing more and more frequent, usher in the rainy season, which lasts till October.

Sikrol (*Sirol*).—Western suburb of BENARES CITY, containing the military cantonments, civil station, and European quarter. Lat. 25°

20′ 20″ N., long. 83° 1′ 20″ E. The little river Barná flows through the suburb, dividing it into two parts. Church, official buildings, numerous well-built bungalows, standing amid gardens and groves.

Siláí.—River of Bengal; rises in the Fiscal Division of Ládhurká, Mánbhúm District, and flows in a south-easterly direction into the District of Midnapur. After a tortuous course it falls into the RUPNARAYAN, of which it forms the chief tributary, near the point where that river touches the eastern boundary of Midnapur. The Silái is subject to destructive floods; it is only navigable throughout the year for a short distance in its lower reaches, which are within tidal influence. It is fed by two small streams from Bánkurá District, on the north—the Purandar-nadi and Gopa-nadi. The other and principal feeder of the Silái is the Burí-nadi, which takes its rise in the north-west of Midnapur District, and flows east into the Silái near Nárájol.

Siláná.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £300; of which £10 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Silánáth.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the Kamlá river, in lat. 26° 34′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 9′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 2520. Noted for its annual fair held in March or April for about 15 days, and attended by 15,000 people, chiefly from the *tarái*. Live stock, of the finest breeds in Tirhut, and grain are the principal articles of commerce; from the Nepál Hills are brought iron-ore, hatchets, *tejpát* or bay-leaves, and musk. The fair doubtless had its origin in pilgrims coming to visit a temple of Mahádeo, which stood here; but the Kamlá has changed its course, and washed the temple away, and now no traces of it remain.

Silang.—Mountain range and town in the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, Assam.—*See* SHILLONG.

Silchár.—Chief town of the District of Cáchár, Assam; situated in lat. 24° 49′ 40″ N., and long. 92° 50′ 48″ E., on the south bank of the Barák river. Area of municipal union, 3·75 square miles; pop. (1872), 3729; municipal income in 1876-77, £785; rate of taxation, 4s. per head. Silchár is the headquarters of the civil administration, and also contains military cantonments, covering an area of 140 acres. In 1875, the 3d Bengal Native Infantry was stationed here, consisting of 7 European officers and 525 natives of all ranks. A handsome new church has been erected since the earthquake of 1869. The town is built on a neck of land formed by a bend in the river. The surface is swampy in some parts, but in others it rises into low sandy hillocks, locally called *tilás*. In recent years, much attention has been paid to sanitary improvements. A large trading fair or *melá* is held annually in January, lasting for about seven days. The average attendance is estimated at 20,000

persons; the articles sold include cotton goods and ponies from Manipur. On 10th January 1869, a severe shock of earthquake was felt at Silchár. The church and public buildings fell down, and the greater part of the *bázár* was laid in ruins. The surface was rent into deep fissures, and in some parts sank down as much as from 15 to 30 feet.

Silhetí.—Chiefship in Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 60 miles north-west of Ráipur town; comprising 20 villages, formerly part of Gandai chiefship. The chief is a Gond. The town of Silhetí lies in lat. 21° 47′ N., and long. 81° 9′ E.

Sillána.—Native State in Central India.—*See* SAILANA.

Siller (*Selere*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Flows east then north to Umada, where it turns west, and finally south-west, and joins the Saveri at Moat, about 20 miles north-east of the junction of the latter stream with the Godávari. The Siller has a very tortuous course through mountainous country; total length, about 150 miles.

Silpáta.—Village in Chatgári Dwár, Darrang District, Assam, at which a large fair is held annually during the *Bor Bihu* festival, chiefly attended by the Cáchárí population.

Simgá.—Northern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 207,866, on an area of 1401 square miles; residing in 744 villages or townships and 45,296 houses.

Simgá.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, on the Seo river; 28 miles north of Ráipur town, on the road to Biláspur. Estimated pop. 1000. Simgá has a town school, police post, and post office.

Simháchalam.—Temple in Vizagapatam District, Madras. —*See* SINHACHALAM.

Simla.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, consisting of several detached plots of territory; situated among the hills of the lower Himálayan system. Area, 18 square miles; population in 1868, 33,995. The administrative headquarters are at SIMLA, the summer capital of India, in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long 77° 11′ E.

Physical Aspects.—The mountains of Simla District and the surrounding Native States compose the southern outliers of the great central chain of the Eastern Himálayas. They descend in a gradual series from the main chain itself in Bashahr State to the general level of the Punjab plain in Umballa (Ambála) District, thus forming a transverse southwesterly spur between the great basins of the Ganges and the Indus, here respectively represented by their tributaries the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Sutlej. A few miles north-east of Simla, the spur divides into two main ridges, one of which curves round the Sutlej valley toward the north-west, while the other, crowned by the sanatorium of Simla, trends south-eastward to a point a few miles north of Subáthu, where it merges at right angles in the mountains of the Outer or Sub-Himálayan system, which run parallel to the principal range. South and east of Simla the

hills between the Sutlej and the Tons centre in the great peak of CHOR, 11,982 feet above the sea. Throughout all the hills, forests of *deodár* abound, while rhododendrons clothe the slopes up to the limit of perpetual snow. The scenery in the immediate neighbourhood of Simla itself presents a series of magnificent views, embracing on the south the Ambála plains, with the Subáthu and Kasauli Hills in the foreground, and the massive block of the Chor a little to the left; while just below the spectator's feet a series of huge ravines lead down into the deep valleys which score the mountain-sides. Northwards, the eye wanders over a network of confused chains, rising range above range, and crowned in the distance by a crescent of snowy peaks, standing out in bold relief against the clear background of the sky. The principal torrents of the surrounding tracts are the Pabar, the Giri Ganga, the Gambhar, and the Sarsa.

History.—The acquisition of the patches of territory composing Simla District dates from the period of the Gúrkha war in 1815-16. At a very early time the Hill States, together with the outer portion of Kángra District, probably formed part of the Katoch kingdom of JALANDHAR (Jullundur); and, after the disruption of that principality, they continued to be governed by Hindu Rájás till the beginning of the present century. After the encroachments of the Gúrkhas led to the British invasion of their dominions in 1815, our troops remained in possession of the whole block of hill country between the Gogra and the Sutlej. Kumáun and the Dehrá Dún became a portion of British territory; a few separate localities were retained as military posts, and a portion of Keunthál State was sold to the Rájá of Patiála. With these exceptions, however, the whole of the conquered tract was restored to the Hill Rájás, from whom it had been wrested by the Gúrkhas. Garhwál State became attached to the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, but the remaining principalities rank among the dependencies of the Punjab, and are known collectively as the Simla Hill States. From one or other of these, the plots now composing the little District of Simla have been gradually acquired. Part of the hill over which the Simla sanatorium now spreads was retained by Government in 1816, and an additional strip of land was obtained from Keunthál in 1830. The spur known as Jutogh, 3½ miles from the station, was acquired by exchange from Patiála in 1843, as the equivalent of two villages in Barauli. Kotkhai Kotgarh, again, fell into our hands through the abdication of its Rána, who refused to accept charge of the petty State. The Kasauli Hill originally belonged to Bíja, but was relinquished in consideration of a small annual payment. Subáthu Hill was retained from the beginning as a military fort; and the other fragments of the District have been added at various dates.

Population.—The results of the Census of 1868 can hardly be regarded as fairly representing the actual state of the District, for with the exception of Barauli and Kotkhai, the British territory possesses no rural population of its own. Nor do the figures show the real normal number of inhabitants on the plots which compose the District, as the Census was taken in January, one of the months when Simla and Kasauli are almost empty. Nevertheless, for the sake of uniformity, the statistics may be appended for what they are worth. The enumeration extended over an area of 18 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 53,995 persons, inhabiting 7880 houses. Persons per square mile, 1888; houses per square mile, 440; persons per house, 4·31. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 21,619; females, 12,376: proportion of males, 63·60 per cent. This great discrepancy between the sexes is due to the number of male immigrants connected with the sanatoria of Simla and Kasauli, who do not bring their families with them. The number of Hindus was 24,444, or 71·90 per cent.; of Muhammadans, 5525, or 16·25 per cent.; of Síkhs, 410, or 1·20 per cent.; and of 'others,' 3616, or 10·64 per cent. According to the returns of occupation, 13,351 persons were engaged in agriculture, while 20,644 belonged to the non-agricultural classes. Bráhmans numbered 2011. Among these the Sásani grade ranks highest in popular estimation, and supplies the Rájás and Ránás of the Hill States with priests. Others of the Bráhmans engage in agriculture. The Rájputs numbered in 1868, 5557; they resemble their hill brethren in Kángra. The Kanets (8969 in number) form the characteristic tribe of the Simla States, and are popularly supposed to be Rájputs who have lost caste by buying wives and permitting the re-marriage of widows. All classes of the hill population are simple-minded, orderly people, truthful in character and submissive to authority, so that they scarcely require to be ruled. The chief towns (or stations) are SIMLA (14,848 in July 1869), KASAULI, DAGSHAI, SUBATHU, SOLAN, and KALKA.

Agriculture, etc.—The time of sowing and harvesting in the hill country depends very greatly upon the elevation. Cultivation is carried on among all the lower valleys, but even more rudely than in the similar glens of Kángra District. The fields are artificial terraces, built up against the mountain-sides, and sown with maize, pulses, or millet for the autumn, and with wheat for the spring harvest. Poppy, hemp, turmeric, ginger, and potatoes form the principal staples raised for exportation to the plains. The last-named crop, introduced under British rule, has rapidly grown in favour, and now occupies many fresh clearings on the hillsides in the neighbourhood of Simla. Land is measured, not by superficial extent, but by the quantity of seed which is required to sow it. Most of the cultivators till their own little plots, and rent is practically unknown. Throughout the hills,

the employment of hired labour for agricultural purposes is almost unknown, the people combining together to aid one another in special undertakings, and expecting to receive similar help in return whenever they may require it. Wages for artisans and day-labourers in 1872-73 ranged from 9d. to 1s. 6d. for skilled hands, and from 4½d. to 7½d. for coolies. Prices of food grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873:—Wheat, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; Indian corn, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; rice, 5 *sers* per rupee, or 22s. 5d. per cwt.

Commerce, Communications, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the *bázárs* of SIMLA, which forms a considerable entrepôt for the produce of the hill tracts. RAMPUR, on the Sutlej, has also some importance as a depôt for the shawl-wool (*pashm*) brought in by the mountaineers of Spiti and of Chinese Tartary. Part of it is worked up on the spot into coarse shawls, of the kind now made at Ludhiána and Amritsar (Umritsur), and known as Rámpur *chadars;* but the greater part is bought up by merchants for exportation to British India. The hill paths are so steep that most of the wool is brought down on the backs of the sheep, which are then sheared, and laden with grain for the return journey. The Rámpur fair, on the 10th and 11th of November, attracts a large number of hillmen and of traders from the plains. The main roads of the Simla Hills are those which lead from Kálka to Simla, and from Simla towards Rámpur and Chíni. Only small portions, however, lie actually within British territory. The old road from Kálka to Simla, *viâ* Kasauli and Subáthu, is practicable for horses, mules, ponies, or cattle, but not for wheeled conveyances. The distance by this route is 41 miles, and the journey can be performed by relays of ponies in eight hours. The new cart-road takes a more circuitous route, *viâ* Dagshai and Solan. The distance amounts to 57 miles, and two-wheeled carts traverse the whole distance in twelve hours. All the heavy traffic between Simla and the plains passes by this route. Staging bungalows have been built on all the roads at frequent intervals. A line of telegraph follows the old road, with stations at Kálka, Kasauli, and Simla.

Administration.—The Simla Hill States are under the superintendence of the Deputy Commissioner of Simla, subordinate to the Commissioner at Umballa (Ambála). The total imperial revenue of the District amounted in 1872-73 to £23,384, of which sum the land tax contributed £15,816. The only other items of importance were stamps and excise. The number of civil and revenue judges in the same year was 6, and the number of magistrates 5. The police force numbered 201 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 man to every 1691 of the population. The Simla jail contained in 1872 a total of 118 prisoners, with a daily average of 14·89. There were

750 children receiving education in 1872-73. The educational establishments include Bishop Cotton's School, a District School, Roman Catholic Female Orphanage, Punjab Girls' School, Mayo Industrial Girls' School, and American Presbyterian Mission at Subáthu. The only municipality is that of SIMLA.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Simla Hills is admirably adapted to the European constitution, and the District has therefore been selected as the site of numerous sanatoria and cantonments. The mean temperature at Simla for each month of the year is as follows:—January, 40° F.; February, 44·1°; March, 53·4°; April, 61·3°; May, 66·3°; June, 80·9°; July, 75·5°; August, 78·1°; September, 70°; October, 67·9°; November, 52·3°; December, 46·1° F. The average annual rainfall amounts to 78·3 inches, according to a calculation made in 1869 upon observations extending over 16 years. Cholera visited Simla, Kasauli, Subáthu, and Dagshai in 1857, 1867, and 1872, though one or other station escaped in each visitation. In 1857, the death-rate among Europeans from cholera was 3·5 per thousand, and in 1867, 4·2 per thousand. The recorded death-rate of Simla for 1870, 1871, 1872, was 11, 8, and 8 per thousand respectively; but no trustworthy statistics exist as to native mortality. Goitre, leprosy, and stone are reported to be prevailing endemic diseases, and syphilis is said to be very common amongst the hill people. The only disease usually contracted by Europeans is that known as hill diarrhœa, a very troublesome form of the ailment. Government maintains three charitable dispensaries—at Simla, Kasauli, and Dagshai. In 1872, they gave relief to a total number of 7258 persons, of whom 327 were in-patients. The Lawrence Military Asylum, established in 1852, stands upon the crest of a hill facing Kasauli, from which it is distant by road 3 miles.

Simla.—*Tahsíl* of Simla District, Punjab; consisting of the two detached *parganás* of Simla and Barauli.

Simla.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Simla District, Punjab; chief sanatorium and summer capital of British India. Situated on a transverse spur of the Central Himálayan system, in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 77° 11′ E. Mean elevation above sea level, 7084 feet. Distant from Umballa (Ambála) 78 miles; from Kálka, at the foot of the hills, by cart-road, 57 miles. Population in January 1868, 7656; in July 1869, at the beginning of the season, 14,848, of whom 1434 were Europeans and 13,414 natives. It is probable, however, that in August and September the population considerably exceeds this number. A tract of land, including part of the hill now crowned by the station, was retained by the British Government at the close of the Gúrkha war in 1815-16. Lieutenant Ross, Assistant-Political Agent for the Hill States, erected the first residence, a thatched wooden cottage, in 1819. Three years later, his successor,

Lieutenant Kennedy, built a permanent house. Officers from Umballa and neighbouring stations quickly followed the example, and in 1826, the new settlement had acquired a name. A year later, Lord Amherst, the Governor-General, after completing his progress through the North-West, on the conclusion of the successful Bhartpur campaign, spent the summer at Simla. From that date, the sanatorium rose rapidly into favour with the European population of Northern India. Year after year, irregularly at first, but as a matter of course after a few seasons, the seat of Government was transferred for a few weeks in every summer from the heat of Calcutta to the cool climate of the Himálayas. Successive Governors-General resorted with increasing regularity to Simla during the hot weather. Situated in the recently annexed Punjab, it formed an advantageous spot for receiving the great chiefs of Northern and Western India, numbers of whom annually come to Simla to pay their respects to the British Suzerain. It also presented greater conveniences as a starting-point for the Governor-General's cold-weather tour than Calcutta, which is situated in the extreme south-east corner of Bengal. At first only a small staff of officials accompanied the Governor-General to Simla; but since the administration of Sir John Lawrence (1864), Simla has practically been the summer capital of the Government of India, with its secretariats and headquarters establishments, unless during exceptional seasons of famine on the plains, as in 1874. Under these circumstances, the station grew with extraordinary rapidity. From 30 houses in 1830, it increased to upwards of 100 in 1841, and 290 in 1866. At present, the bungalows extend over the whole length of a considerable ridge, which runs east and west in a crescent shape, with its concave side pointing southward. The extreme ends of the station lie at a distance of 6 miles from one another. Eastward, the ridge culminates in the peak of Jako, more than 8000 feet in height, and nearly 1000 feet above the average elevation of the station. Woods of *deodár*, oak, and rhododendron clothe its sides, while a tolerably level road, 5 miles long, runs round its base. Another grassy height, known as Prospect Hill, of inferior elevation to Jako, and devoid of timber, closes the western extremity of the crescent. The houses cluster thickest upon the southern slopes of Jako, and of two other hills lying near the western end. Peterhoff, the Government House, stands upon one of the latter; while the other is crowned by a large building erected for an observatory, but now used as an ordinary residence. The church stands at the western base of Jako, below which, on the south side of the hill, the native *bázár* cuts off one end of the station from the other. The eastern portion bears the name of Chota Simla, while the most easterly extremity is known as Boileauganj. An outlying northern spur, running at right angles to the main ridge, has acquired the compli-

mentary designation of Elysium. Three and a half miles from the western end, a battery of artillery occupies the detached hill of Jutogh. The exquisite scenery of the neighbourhood has already been described in the article on SIMLA DISTRICT. The public institutions include the Bishop Cotton's School, the Punjab Girls' School, the Mayo Industrial Girls' School, a Roman Catholic convent, and a dispensary. The Government buildings comprise a District court-house and treasury, *tahsíli* and police office, post office, telegraph station, and staging bungalow. The commerce of the town consists mainly in the supply of necessaries to the summer visitors and their dependants; but a brisk export trade exists in opium, *charras* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp), fruits, nuts, and shawl-wool, collected from the neighbouring hills, or brought in from beyond the border *viâ* Rámpur. Numerous European shops supply the minor wants of visitors, most of them being branches of Calcutta firms. The station has two English banks, a club, and several churches; and two European breweries are situated in the valley below. The great deficiency of Simla lies in its inadequate water supply. The springs are few in number, and several of them run dry during the summer months, when the demand is greatest. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5281, or 7s. 0¼d. per head of population (15,025) within municipal limits.

Simráon.—Ruined town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated partly in Nepál territory, the frontier line passing through the walls. The remains of the fort are in the form of a square, surrounded by an outer wall 14 miles in circumference, and by an inner one of only 10. Inside are scattered the ruins of large buildings. The Isrá tank measures 333 yards along one side, and 210 along the other. The portions of the palaces and temples left standing disclose some finely carved basements, with a superstructure of bricks. Twenty idols have been extricated, many, however, being much mutilated. The citadel is situated to the north, and the palace in the centre of the town; but both only exist as mounds, covered with trees and jungle. Tradition says that Simráon was founded by Nánaupá Deva in 1097 A.D. Six of his dynasty reigned with much splendour, but the last of the line, Hári Sinh Deo, was driven out in 1322 by the Muhammadans.

Simrauta.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidargarh, on the east by Inhauna, on the south by Rái Bareli, and on the west by Kumhráwán and Hardoi. Area, 97 square miles, of which 44 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 58,771, namely 56,841 Hindus and 1930 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £6335, or at the rate of 3s. 6½d. per arable acre. Of the 73 villages comprising the *parganá*, 49 are held under *tálukdárí* and 24 under *zamíndárí* tenure. Kanhpuria Kshattriyas are the principal landed proprietors, owning 35 out of the 49 *tálukdárí* villages.

Sinawan. — *Tahsíl* in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. — *See* SANAWAN.

Sinchal Pahár.—Long undulating range of hills in Dárjíling District, Bengal. A spur stretches gradually down to the Tísta (Teesta), at the top of which, in lat. 26° 59′ N., and long. 88° 20′ 5″ E., and at a height of 8607 feet above the sea level, there are barracks for a European regiment. This hill is the loftiest mountain in the vicinity of Dárjíling station; its peaks are locally known as the Bará and Chhotá Durbín. Their summits are covered with grass, and their sides are clothed with forest trees, bamboos, ferns, and scrub jungle.

Sinchulá. — Hill range in Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; forming the boundary between British territory and Bhután. Its average elevation is from 4000 to a little over 6000 feet, the highest peak, Renígango (lat. 26° 47′ 30″ N., long. 89° 37′ 15″ E.), being 6222 feet above sea level. The hills run generally in long even ridges, thickly wooded from base to summit; but at places the summits bristle up into bare crags of from 200 to 300 feet. From Chhotá Sinchulá (5695 feet high) a magnificent view is obtained over the whole of the Baxá Dwár. In the distance are seen large green patches of cultivation in the midst of wide tracts of brown grass and reed jungle, the cultivated spots being dotted with homesteads; in the foreground, near the hills, are dense *sál* and other tree forests, the whole being intersected by numerous rivers and streams. The Sinchulá range can nearly everywhere be ascended by men and by beasts of burden, but not by wheeled vehicles of any description.

Sind.—A Province of British India, included within the PRESIDENCY of BOMBAY, lying between 23° and 28° 40′ N. lat., and between 66° 50′ and 71° E. long. Area, 56,632 square miles; population in 1872, 2,333,527 souls, including in both cases the Khairpur Native State. The Province of Sind consists of the lower valley and delta of the Indus. It is bounded on the north by Baluchistán or the territories of the Khán of Khelát, the Punjab Province, and Baháwalpur State; on the east by the Native States of Jáisalmír and Jodhpur in Rájputána; on the south by the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh) and the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the territories of the Khán of Khelát. The administrative headquarters are at the city of KARACHI (Kurrachee), but the ancient capital of HAIDARABAD still ranks high amongst the towns of the Province. Sind is divided into the five Districts of KARACHI, HAIDARABAD, THAR AND PARKAR, SHIKARPUR, and UPPER SIND FRONTIER, all of which see separately. I take this opportunity of again acknowledging my obligations, already mentioned in the preface to Volume I., to the *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind*, by Mr. A. W. Hughes, of the Bombay Uncovenanted Civil Service. The following account of Sind, and the articles on places within that

Province, are mainly condensed from Mr. Hughes' excellent and elaborate work:—

Physical Aspects.—Almost every portion of the great alluvial tract of Sind has at some time or other formed a channel for the river Indus itself, or one of its many branches. The main central stream of North-Western India, after collecting into its bed the waters of the five Punjab rivers, has deposited near its debouchure into the Indian Ocean a vast mass of deltaic matter, through which it flows by several shifting channels to join the sea on the southern border of the Province. In every direction, traces of ancient river beds may be discovered crossing the country like elevated dikes; for the level of the land, as in all other deltaic regions, is highest at the river bank. The Indus brings down from the turbid hill torrents a greater quantity of detritus than can be carried forward by its diminished velocity in the plain, and hence a constant accumulation of silt takes place along its various beds, raising their level above that of the surrounding country, and incidentally affording an easy opportunity of irrigation by side channels drawn from the central river.

The only elevations deserving the name of mountains occur in the Kirthar range, which separate Sind from Baluchistán, and attain in places a height of more than 7000 feet above sea level. They first touch the Sind frontier about the 28th parallel of north latitude, and form the British boundary for 120 miles. Thenceforward, they sink considerably in altitude, forming the lesser chain of the Pab Hills, which after a length of 90 miles in a southerly direction terminate on the sea-coast in the promontory of Cape Monze. Their average elevation does not rise above 2000 feet. Among the valleys and ravines of the Pab range flows the river Hab, the only permanent stream in Sind, except the Indus and its tributaries. The wild and rocky tract of KOHISTAN, in the western portion of KARACHI DISTRICT, forms almost the only remaining exception to the general flatness of the Province. Another offshoot of the Kirthar chain, however, known as the Lakki range, extends in a barren mass eastward into the Sehwán Subdivision, and presents evident marks of volcanic origin in its frequent hot springs and sulphurous exhalations. A few insignificant limestone ranges intersect the Indus valley, on one of which, known as the Ganjo Hills, with an elevation of only 100 feet, stands the Tálpur capital of HAIDARABAD. A second small chain, running in a north-westerly direction from the neighbourhood of Jáisalmír, attains towards the Indus a height of 150 feet, and forms the rocks on which are perched the town of ROHRI and the island fortress of BUKKUR (Bakhar).

The plain country comprises a mixed tract of dry desert and alluvial plain. The finest and most productive region lies in the neighbourhood of Shikárpur and Lárkhána, where a long narrow island extends for

100 miles from north to south, enclosed on one side by the river Indus, and on the other by the Western Nára. Another great alluvial tract, with an average width of 70 or 80 miles, stretches eastward from the Indus to the Eastern Nára. The Indus appears at one time to have spread its fertilizing waters through the wide waste at present known as the Eastern Desert, in the District of Thar and Párkar. Vestiges of ancient towns still stud the treeless expanse, and dry water-courses intersect it in every part. Sandhills abound near the eastern border, shifting under the influence of each prevailing wind. Large tracts rendered sterile for want of irrigation also occur in many other parts of Sind. Amongst them the most noticeable is the Pat, or desert of Shikárpur, stretching for 30 miles from that town to the foot of the Bolán Pass, and formed of the clay deposited by the Bolán, the Nári, and other mountain torrents of the Kirthar range.

The scenery of Sind naturally lacks variety or grandeur, and its monotony renders it tame and uninteresting. Nothing can be more dreary to a stranger approaching the shore than the low and flat coast, entirely devoid of trees and shrubs. Even among the hills of Kohistán, where fine rocky scenery abounds, the charm of foliage is almost totally wanting, owing to the volcanic nature of the rock. In the Thar and Párkar District, in the eastern portions of Khairpur State, and in the Subdivision of Rohri, the *registhán* or desert tract consists of nothing but sandhills, many of which, however, derive picturesqueness from their bold outline, and are sometimes even fairly wooded. The various ranges of sandhills succeed one another like vast waves. Lakes are rare, the largest being the MANCHHAR in the Sehwán Subdivision, formed by an expansion of the Western Nára. During the inundation season, it measures 20 miles in length, and covers an area of about 180 square miles. At the same period, the flood-hollows (*dandhs*) of the Eastern Nára form pretty lakelets; but in spite of their great beauty they are seldom visited, as the miasma renders them dangerous places in which to encamp. The alluvial strip which borders either bank of the Indus for a distance of 12 miles, though superior to every other part of Sind in soil and productiveness, can lay no claim to picturesque beauty. Even here, however, extensive forests of acacia (*bábul*) in many places skirt the reaches of the Indus for miles together. Near the town of SEHWAN, the Lakhi range forms an abrupt escarpment toward the river in a perpendicular face of rock 600 feet high. But the finest views in the Province are those which embrace the towns of Sukkur and Rohri, and the island fortress of Bukkur, with its lofty castellated walls, lying in the river between them. All three crown the range of limestone hills through which the Indus has here cut its way, and the minarets and houses, especially in Rohri, overhang the stream from a towering height above. A little to the south of Bukkur, again, lies the

green island of Sádh Bela with its sacred shrine, while groves of date-palm and acacia stud the banks of the Indus on either side.

The soil of Sind consists of a plastic clay, strongly impregnated with salt. When covered by the floods (*léts*) of the Indus, either through artificial irrigation or through spontaneous change of channel, it quickly assumes the appearance of a rich lowland; and it changes its aspect as quickly to that of an arid desert when the water is once more diverted elsewhere. The land is thus fertile enough in the immediate neighbourhood of the existing river branches to yield two or more crops in the year without manuring. Nevertheless, the soil contains a large admixture of saltpetre; and in Southern Sind, where sand greatly prevails, it is so impregnated with common salt as to produce it in abundance by evaporation, after simply pouring water through its surface. The extent of forest land is small for a Province of so large an area, only about 500 square miles being covered with woodland, not including those in Khairpur State. The Forest Department has charge of about 87 separate forests, chiefly situated along the bank of the Indus, extending southward from Ghotki to the middle delta. They run in narrow strips, from a quarter of a mile to 2 miles in breadth, and about 3 miles in length. Many of them suffer greatly at times from the encroachments of the stream. The floods of 1863 swept away 1000 acres of the Dhárejá forest in Shikárpur District, and a similar misfortune occurred to the forests of Sundarbelo and Sámtia in the two succeeding years. The indigenous trees consist chiefly of *bábul* (Acacia arabica), *bahan* (Populus euphratica), and *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera). The *bábul*, the staple tree of Lower Sind, produces good timber for boat-building and fuel; while its seed-pods supply a food for fattening cattle, its bark is employed for tanning, and its leaves form a favourite fodder of camels and goats. The *bahan*, the commonest tree of Upper Sind, yields a light tough wood for building purposes, from which also are manufactured the celebrated lacquered boxes of Hála and Khánot. The *táli* (Dalbergia sissu) grows to some extent in Upper Sind, though it cannot be considered as indigenous to the Province. The delta of the Indus contains no forests, but its shores and inlets abound with low thickets of mangrove trees, whose timber makes a good fuel. The Forest Department has lately introduced several valuable exotics, including the tamarind, the water-chestnut, and the tallow-tree. The revenue from this source has largely increased during the last two decades, and considerable quantities of firewood are now exported to Bombay by way of Keti-bandar. The date-palm ripens its fruit in Sind, while the country also produces excellent apples, being to some extent intermediate in its flora between Hindustán and Khorásán. One-third of the indigenous vegetation is Arabian or Egyptian. The native fauna includes the tiger, found occasionally in

the jungles of Upper Sind, the hyæna, the *gúrkhar* or wild ass, the wolf, fox, wild boar, antelope, and hog-deer, as well as the vulture and several falcons. The flamingo, pelican, stork, crane, and Egyptian ibis frequent the shores of the delta. Bustard, rock-grouse, quail, and partridge occur among the game-birds; while flocks of wild geese, *kulang*, ducks, teal, and curlew cover the lakes and *dandhs* during the cold season. Venomous snakes abound, and yearly cause a large number of deaths. The river fisheries of the Indus and its offshoots not only supply the Province with fresh fish, but afford a considerable export trade in dried *pála*. Among domestic animals, the camel, of the one-humped variety, ranks first as a beast of burden, immense numbers being bred in the salt marshes of the Indus. Great herds of buffaloes graze on the swampy tracts of the delta, and *ghí*, made from their milk, forms an important item of export trade. Sheep and goats abound in Upper Sind, on the borders of the Pat in Shikárpur District, and in Thar and Párkar. The horses, though small, are active, hardy, and capable of enduring great fatigue. The Baluchís of Upper Sind pay much attention to the breeding of mares. The bullocks are small in size, and chiefly used for draught or for turning irrigation wheels.

The extreme south-eastern border of Sind is formed by the RANN OF CUTCH (KACHCHH), an immense salt-water waste, with an area of about 7000 square miles. It bounds the District of Thar and Párkar for a distance of nearly 40 miles. Every part of it is devoid of herbage, and a large portion is annually converted into a salt lake from June to November, owing to the influx of the sea at Lakhpat Bandar on the Kori mouth of the Indus, as well as at other places in Cutch (Kachchh) and Káthiáwár. During the remaining six months of the year, after the evaporation of the water, the surface becomes incrusted with salt, while herds of antelopes and wild asses roam over the desert expanse. According to local tradition, a well-tilled plain, irrigated by a branch of the Indus, once covered this portion of the Rann; but either the hand of man or an earthquake diverted the waters, and the tract has ever since remained a waste of salt. The upper part of the Kori mouth still bears the name of the Purána or ancient stream, and there is little doubt that the Indus once took a more easterly course than at present, and so rendered some portion of the Rann a fertile lowland. The whole sea-coast of Sind, except the part between Karáchi (Kurrachee) and Cape Monze where the Pab Hills approach the shore, is low and flat, and submerged at spring-tides. It consists, in fact, of a series of mud-banks deposited by the Indus, or in a few places of sandhills blown from seaward. The sea near the shore is very shallow, owing to the quantity of mud deposited by the river. A bank extends along the coast from Karáchi to Cutch, about 2 miles from the land, and 3 miles in width, generally dry at low

water. This circumstance renders the approach to the shore extremely dangerous for large vessels.

History.—Sind owes its name as well as its existence to the river Indus or Sindhu, a Sanskrit term signifying water; though Muhammadan scholars prefer to derive the word from an eponymic patriarch Sind, the brother of Hind, and son of Nuh or Noah, whose descendants ruled over the country for many generations. Previous to the Arab invasion in 713 A.D., a Hindu dynasty appears to have reigned at Aror, near the present town of Rohri; and their capital, on the bank of the Indus, possessed many fine buildings, with extensive pleasure-gardens. The dominions of the native dynasty stretched, according to local tradition, from Kashmír and Kanauj to Omán and Surat, besides including the Afghán territories of Kandahár and the Suláimán Hills. The names of five kings belonging to this earliest line have been preserved to us, and their reigns are said to have extended over an aggregate of 137 years. A Bráhman chamberlain to the last of them, by name Chachh, established himself on the throne after his master's death, and left the kingdom to two of his family in succession. But during the reign of his son Dahír, a few peaceful Muhammadan merchants, as the Arab version of the conquest asserts, who had been sent into Sind by the Khálifa Abdul Málik to purchase female slaves and other articles of lawful commerce, were attacked by robbers, and either made prisoners or killed on the spot. One or two of the injured merchants alone escaped to make their complaints to the Khálifa; and the latter readily embraced so excellent an opportunity of spreading the faith of Islám into the delta of the Indus. He died before the army collected for the purpose could invade Sind; but his son despatched Muhammad Kásim Sakifi to carry out the conquest in or about 712 A.D. Muhammad Kásim set out from Shiráz with a large force, and first captured the seaport of Debal, identified with MANORA or TATTA. Thence he marched upon Nerankot, the modern Haidarábád; and after its capitulation he next took the strong fortress of Sehwán. Returning to Nerankot, the Musalmán leader proceeded to cross the Indus, whose main channel then flowed east of the city, and successfully engaged the army of Rájá Dahír. The native prince was slain at the fort of Ráwar, while his family were carried away prisoners by the conqueror. In 713, Muhammad Kásim arrived at the capital, Alor, which was taken; and then advanced upon MULTAN (in the present Punjab Province), which submitted with an immense treasure. The end of the first great Musalmán conqueror of India remains uncertain; but it seems probable that he was tortured to death with the sanction of Khálifa Suláimán. Sind remained thenceforward, with scarcely a break, in the hands of the Muhammadans. On the extinction of the Ummayide dynasty of Khálifas (750 A.D.), and the accession of the Abássides, the Indus delta

passed to the new rulers, and the power of the Musalmáns began to attract the attention of the native princes on the northern frontier of Hindustán. But the hold of the Khálifas upon this distant Province grew slowly weaker, and became virtually extinct in 871 A.D. Two native kingdoms raised themselves at Múltán and Mánsura. The former comprised the upper valley of the united Indus as far as Alor; the latter extended from that town to the sea, and nearly coincided with the modern Province of Sind. The country was then well cultivated, and Alor, the capital, is said to have almost equalled Múltán in size, and to have possessed a considerable commerce. The Arab princes apparently derived but a very small revenue from Sind, and left the administration wholly in the hands of natives. Arab soldiers held lands on military tenure, and liberal grants provided for the sacred buildings and institutions of Islám. Commerce was carried on by caravans with Khorásán and Zábulistán, and by sea with China, Ceylon, and Malabar. The Arabs also permitted the native Sindians the free exercise of their own religion to a considerable extent.

When Mahmúd of Ghazní invaded India in 1019, Sind was ruled by a Governor who nominally represented the Khálifa, Kádir Billah Abúl Abbas Ahmad. After the capture of Múltán and Uchh, Mahmúd sent his Wazír, Abdúr Razái, to conquer Sind, which the Wazír accomplished in 1026. But six years later, Ibn Súmar, Governor of Múltán, laid the foundation of the Súmra dynasty in Sind, at first apparently as a titular vassal of the Ghaznevide monarchy. In 1051, however, if not before, the Súmra kings made themselves completely independent, and extended their possessions as far as Nasarpur. Under Khafíf, who made Tatta his capital, the dynasty attained its greatest power, and restrained with success the wild tribes of the western frontier. From the death of Khafíf, however, the Súmra dynasty lost its prestige; and in the reign of Urrah Mehl (1351), the Sama tribe, a body of non-Musalmán immigrants from Cutch (Kachchh), conspired against and killed the Musalmán king, and placed Jám Unar, one of themselves, upon the throne of Sind. The Samas were either Buddhists or Hindus, and had their capital city at Samanagar on the Indus, identified with the modern town of Sehwán; but they resided chiefly at Tatta or at Samui, under the Makli Hills, 3 miles north-west of the former town. They were undoubtedly Rájputs of the Yadava stock, and they became Muhammadans not earlier than 1391 A.D. Jám Unar, first of the line, reigned three and a half years, but does not seem to have held all Sind under his sway, as the Hákims kept Bukkur and its neighbourhood on behalf of the king of the Turks. Junah, the second king, captured Bukkur, and the Hákims retreated to Uchh. Under his successor, the forces of the King of Delhi retook Bukkur, and carried the Jám and his family as prisoners to Delhi. In 1372, Firoz Tughlak invaded Sind, and com-

pelled the ruling prince to tender a nominal allegiance. The Sama line consisted in all of 15 kings, the last of whom was supplanted by the Arghúns.

The Arghún dynasty traced its origin to Changíz Khán, and commenced its rule in Sind in 1521. The first prince of the line, Sháh Beg Arghún, marching down from Kandahár, defeated the Sama army in 1520, and sacked Tatta, the capital of Jám Firoz Sama. By a subsequent agreement, the Jám retained all Sind between Sukkur and Tatta, while the Sháh took the region north of Lakhi. But the Samas soon after repudiated this agreement, and a battle fought at Talti, near Sehwán, resulted in their utter defeat and the secure establishment of the Arghún power. Sháh Beg afterwards captured the fort of Bukkur, and rebuilt the fortifications with bricks taken from the ancient stronghold of Alor. Just before his death in 1522, he made preparations to attack Gujrát, but did not live to accomplish his purpose. Sháh Beg was not only a bold soldier, but also a learned Musalmán theologian and commentator. His son and successor, Mírza Sháh Husáin, finally drove Jám Firoz from Tatta to Cutch, and at length to Gujrát, where the Sama prince died. Sháh Husáin severely punished his subject tribes for internal wars, and sacked the towns of Múltán and Uchh, as well as the fort of Diláwar. During his reign, the Mughal Emperor Humáyun, being defeated by the Afghán, Sher Sháh, in 1539 A.D., fled to Sind, where he endeavoured unsuccessfully to take the fort of Bukkur. After a short stay in Jodhpur, Humáyun returned to Sind by way of Umarkot in 1542, and again attempted without success to conquer the country. Sháh Husáin died childless in 1554, after a reign of thirty-four years, and with him ended the Arghún dynasty. A short-lived line, the Tarkhán, succeeded for a few years; but in 1592, the Mughal Emperor Akbar, who was himself born at Umarkot during the flight of his father Humáyun, defeated Mírzá Jáni Beg, ruler of Tatta, and united Sind for the first time with the Musalmán Empire of Delhi. The Province was incorporated under Akbar's organization in the Subah of Múltán.

During the flourishing period of the Mughal Empire, the general peace of the great monarchy extended to Sind, and but few historical events of importance occurred for the next century. In the interval, however, between the consolidation of the empire by Akbar, and the dismemberment which followed on the invasion of Nádir Sháh, the Dáúdputras or sons of Dáúd Khán, rose to distinction. Weavers and warriors by profession, they led a wild and wandering life, at Khánpur, Tarái, and the Sukkur District. After a long and sanguinary conflict with the Mahars, a race of Hindu origin, the Dáúdputras succeeded in establishing their supremacy over Upper Sind, and founded the town of Shikárpur. From the extinction of the native dynasties, Tatta had

formed a scene of constant contention between neighbouring governors, till Jahángír put a stop to the strife by appointing removable lieutenants to administer the outlying Provinces of the empire, and so checked the growth of a hereditary viceroyalty in Sind. Towards the end of the 17th century, however, another race, closely allied to the Dáúdputras, rose to power in the lower Indus valley. The Kalhoras traced their descent historically to Muhammad of Kambáthá (1204 A.D.), and more mythically to Abbas, the uncle of the Prophet. About 1558, the family rose into notice through the sanctity of one Adam Sháh, the chief of a large sect of mendicants in Chánduka. The Governor of Múltán attacked the religious leader, dispersed his followers, and put to death Adam Sháh himself. The Fakírs descended from the family long lived a life of warfare against the Mughal lieutenants; until at length in 1658, under Názir Muhammad Kalhora, they began successfully to oppose the imperial troops and to organize themselves into a regular government. At length, about 1701, Yár Muhammad Kalhora, assisted by the Sirai or Tálpur tribe, seized upon Shikárpur, where he fixed his court, and obtained from the Emperor a grant of the Deráját, together with a regular title under the imperial system. By the year 1711, Yár Muhammad had further overrun the Kandiáro and Lárkhána tracts, as well as the country around Sukkur. On his death in 1719, his son Núr Muhammad succeeded to his territories, and conquered the Nhár Subdivision from the Dáúdputras. Sehwán and its dependencies also fell under his rule, and his territory extended from the Múltán border to Tatta. The fort of Bukkur, however, did not come into the possession of the Kalhoras till 1736. With this exception, Núr Muhammad's authority stretched from the desert to the Baluchí Mountains. During his reign, the Tálpur tribe of Baluchís, the last native rulers of Sind, first came into notice in the person of Mír Bahrám, an able officer of the Kalhora kings. When Nádir Sháh, the Persian conqueror, swooped upon Delhi in February 1739, and broke down the decaying Mughal organization, all the Provinces west of the Indus were detached from the Empire and incorporated with the Persian dominions. Tatta and Shikárpur formed part of the territory thus ceded to Nádir Sháh. Shortly after his return to Kábul, Nádir set out upon a second expedition against Sind and the Punjab, in order to repress his troublesome vassal, Núr Muhammad. Two years earlier, the Kalhora prince had persuaded Sádik Alí, Subahdár of Tatta, to make over that Province in return for a sum of 3 *lákhs*; and this transaction apparently aroused the anger of his new suzerain. On Nádir's approach, Núr Muhammad at first fled to Umarkot, but afterwards surrendered with the loss of Shikárpur and Sibi, which the Sháh made over to the Dáúdputras and Afgháns. An annual tribute of 20 *lákhs*, with the honorary compensation of a high-sounding title, was imposed upon the

Kalhora prince. On Nádir Sháh's death, Sind became tributary in 1748 to Ahmad Sháh Duráni of Kandahár, who conferred on Núr Muhammad the new title of Sháh Nawáz Khán. In 1754, the tribute being in arrears, Ahmad Sháh advanced against Sind, and Núr Muhammad fled to Jáisalmír, where he died. His son, Muhammad Murád Yáb Khán, managed to appease the ruler of Kandahár, and obtained a confirmation of his rank and power. He founded the town of Murádábád. In 1757, his subjects rose against his oppressive government and dethroned him, placing his brother, Ghulám Sháh, upon the throne. The new prince, after two years of internal dissension, made his own position secure; and in 1762, he invaded Cutch (Kachchh), fighting the sanguinary battle of Jhana. Next year, he resumed operations against Cutch, and took the seaports of Basta and Lakhpat on the Indus. In 1768, he founded the city of Haidarábád on the ancient site of Nerankot, and made it his capital till his death in 1772. During the early part of his reign, in 1758, the East India Company established a factory at Tatta. Sarfaráz Khán, his son and successor, discouraged the Company's operations, and the factory was eventually withdrawn in 1775. Soon after, the Baluchís deposed the chief, and two years of anarchy followed. In 1777, Ghulám Nabi Khán, a brother of Ghulám Sháh, succeeded in obtaining the throne. During his reign, Mír Bijar, a Tálpur chief, rose in rebellion; and in the battle between them the Kalhora prince lost his life. Abdul Nabi Khán, his brother, succeeded to the throne, and put all his relatives to death as a precautionary measure. He then made a compromise with Mír Bijar, retaining the sovereignty for himself, but appointing the Tálpur chief as his minister. In 1781, an army from Kandahár invaded Sind, where the tribute remained always in a chronic state of arrears, but Mír Bijar defeated it near Shikárpur. Thereupon, Abdul Nabi Khán assassinated his too successful general. Abdulla Khán Tálpur, son of the murdered minister, at once seized upon the government, and the last of the Kalhoras fled to Khelát. Thence he made many unsuccessful efforts to regain his kingdom, and at last re-established himself for a while by the aid of Kandahár. But on his putting to death Abdulla Khán, Mír Fateh Alí, a kinsman of the murdered Tálpur, once more expelled him. The Kalhora king made a final effort to recover his throne; but being defeated by Mír Fateh Alí, he fled to Jodhpur, where his descendants still hold distinguished rank. With him ended the dynasty of the Kalhoras.

In 1783, Mír Fateh Alí Khán, first of the Tálpur line, established himself as Rais of Sind. He obtained a *firmán* from Sháh Zamán of Kandahár for the government of Sind by the Tálpurs. The history of Sind under its new dynasty—generally spoken of as the Tálpur Mírs—is rendered very complicated by the numerous branches into which the ruling house split up. Fateh Alí Khán's nephew, Mír Sohráb Khán,

settled with his adherents at Rohri; while his son, Mír Tharo Khán, removed to Sháhbandar; and each of them occupied the adjacent country as an independent ruler, throwing off all allegiance to the head of their house at Haidarábád. The Tálpurs thus fell into three distinct branches—the Haidarábád or Sháhdádpur family, ruling in Central Sind; the Mírpur or Manikáni house, descendants of Mír Tharo, ruling at Mírpur; and the Sohrábani line, derived from Mír Sohráb, ruling at Khairpur. Further to increase the complication, Fateh Alí, head of the Haidarábád Mírs, associated with himself in the government his three younger brothers, Ghulám Alí, Karam Alí, and Murád Alí. He then turned his attention to the recovery of Karáchi and Umarkot. The former, alienated to the Governor of Khelát, he recovered in 1792; the latter, held by the Rájá of Jodhpur, the Mírs regained in 1813. In 1801, Mír Fateh Alí died, leaving one son, Sobhdár, and bequeathing his dominions to his three brothers. Of these, Ghulám Alí died in 1811, and left a son, Mír Muhammad; but the two surviving brothers retained the chief power in Haidarábád. Kuram Alí died without issue in 1828; but Murád Alí left two sons, Núr Muhammad and Nasír Khán. Up to 1840, the government of Haidarábád was carried on by these two Mírs, together with their cousins Sobhdár and Muhammad. Mír Núr Muhammad died in 1841, leaving two sons, Sháhdád and Husáin Alí. The Tálpur Mírs adorned Haidarábád and its suburb Khudábád with many handsome buildings, of which their own tombs are the most remarkable.

The first connection of the British with Sind took place as early as 1758, in the matter of the abandoned factory at Tatta. In 1799, a commercial mission was sent to Sind, to conduct business between our Government and the Tálpur Mírs, but it ended unsatisfactorily. The agent resided from time to time at Tatta, Sháhbandar, or Karáchi, and endured numerous indignities, until at length he received a peremptory order from the Mírs to quit their territory. The East India Company took no notice of this insult. In 1809, an arrangement was effected between the Mírs and our authorities, mainly for the purpose of excluding Frenchmen from settling in Sind. In 1825, the Sindi tribe of Khosas made incursions into Cutch, and a military demonstration became necessary as a preventive measure. In 1830, Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Alexander) Burnes, after many delays and threats on the part of the Mírs, was permitted to follow up the course of the Indus, taking with him presents from the King of England to Ranjít Sinh at Lahore. The river was then entirely unexplored, and the obvious object of the mission was the collection of information for political purposes. Two years later, Colonel Pottinger concluded a treaty with the Mírs for the advancement of commerce, by which traders and merchants were permitted to use the roads and rivers of Sind, though

no Englishman might settle in the country. The Khairpur Mírs ratified this treaty, after their kinsmen at Haidarábád. In 1835, Colonel Pottinger obtained leave to survey the sea-coast of Sind and the delta of the Indus; yet trade did not enter the river, and the Mírs clearly mistrusted the intentions of their powerful neighbours. In 1838, the first Afghán war necessitated the despatch of British troops to join the main army by way of the Indus, in spite of a clause in the treaty expressly forbidding the employment of the river as a military highway. Lord Auckland considered that so great an emergency overrode the text of the agreement, and declared that those chiefs who showed themselves unwilling to assist us in such a crisis would be deprived of their possessions. In December of that year, a large force under Sir John Keane landed in Sind, but found itself unable to proceed, owing to the obstacles thrown in its way by the Mírs in supplying stores and carriage. After a threat to march upon Haidarábád, Sir John Keane at length succeeded in continuing his course. Owing to this hostile demeanour, a reserve force was despatched from Bombay in 1839, to take up its station in Sind. The Baluchí garrison at Manora, near Karáchi, endeavoured to prevent it from landing, and the British accordingly found it necessary to occupy that fort. A treaty was afterwards concluded with the Haidarábád Mírs, by which they agreed to pay 23 *lákhs* to Sháh Shúja, in commutation of all arrears of tribute due to the Afgháns; to admit the establishment in Sind of a British force not exceeding 5000 men, the expenses being defrayed in part by the Mírs themselves; and finally, to abolish all tolls upon trading boats on the Indus. The Khairpur Mírs concluded a similar treaty, except as regards the subsidy. The English then took possession of the fort of Bukkur, under the terms of the engagement. By careful conciliatory measures, the British representatives secured the tranquillity of the country, so that the steam flotilla navigated the Indus unimpeded. Núr Muhammad, senior Mír, died in 1841, and the Tálpur Government passed to his two sons, conjointly with their uncle, Nasír Khán. In 1842, Sir Charles Napier arrived in Sind, with sole authority over all the territory on the Lower Indus. New conditions were proposed to the Mírs, owing to delay in payment of the tribute, these terms including the cession of Karáchi, Tatta, Sukkur, Bukkur, and Rohri. After some delay and a slight military demonstration, the treaty was signed in February 1843. But the Baluchís composing the Sindian army did not acquiesce in this surrender of independence; and shortly afterwards they attacked the Residency, which stood near the Indus, a few miles from Haidarábád. Major Outram and his small suite, after defending the building for a short time, found themselves compelled to retreat to a steamer then lying in the river. He soon after joined Sir C. Napier's force. On the 17th of February, Napier found the Mírs' army 22,000

strong, posted on the Fuleli river, near MEEANEE (Miáni). He gave them battle with only 2800 men of all arms, and 12 pieces of artillery, and gained a complete and brilliant victory. The Baluchí loss amounted to about 5000 men, while that of the British did not exceed 257, of whom 19 were officers. Shortly after, the chief Mírs of Haidarábád and Khairpur surrendered as prisoners of war, and the fort of Haidarábád was captured, together with the Mírs' treasure, computed at about £1,000,000 sterling. In March, Napier received reinforcements from Sukkur, and went in search of the enemy, with 5000 men. He found the Baluchí army, 20,000 strong, under Sher Muhammad of Mírpur, in a strong position near Dabo. After a desperate resistance, the Sindians fled in disorder, their leader, Sher Muhammad, retreating to the desert. Soon afterwards, our troops occupied Mírpur aud Umarkot. Sind was declared a conquered country, and annexed to the British dominions. The Tálpur family thus ceased to be a ruling power, after a sovereignty of fifty-three years. The Mírs were removed successively to Bombay, Poona, and Calcutta; but in 1854, Lord Dalhousie allowed them to return to Sind and take up their residence at Haidarábád. Under the Tálpurs, the government of Sind consisted of a rude military feudalism. The Mírs themselves had little education or refinement, and lived in primitive Baluchí simplicity, their extravagant propensities being shown in their fondness for horses, arms, and field sports. Their sole aim was to hoard up wealth, oppose all improvements, and enjoy themselves after their own fashion.

Immediately after the annexation, Sir C. Napier was appointed the first British Governor; while a pension of 3¾ *lákhs*, together with lands in *jágír*, was distributed amongst the deposed Mírs. The judicial and revenue systems underwent a speedy remodelling; and the Province was divided into extensive collectorates. Since the British annexation, the chief events in Sind have consisted of great commercial improvements, including especially the immense harbour works at KARACHI, which have rendered the modern capital one of the most important seaports of Western India. Under the Commissionership of Sir Bartle Frere (1851-59), the Province took most important steps in the direction of mercantile progress; and at a later date, the construction of the Indus Valley Railway, from Karáchi to join the Punjab line at Múltán, has already contributed greatly to the prosperity of the country.

Population.—Sind is a very sparsely populated Province even at the present day. We possess no statistics as to the number of inhabitants under its native rulers, though a probable conjecture sets it down in the early part of this century at not more than 1,000,000 persons, or only about 16 to the square mile. A Census taken in 1856, exclusive of the territory of Mír Alí Murád Khán, returned the total population at 1,772,367 persons. An accurate enumeration undertaken in 1872

gave the total, again excluding Khairpur territory, at 2,203,177; thus showing a gain of 430,810 persons, or 26 per cent., in the fifteen years. The Census of 1872 extended over an area of 56,632 square miles, including Khairpur; and it disclosed a total population of 2,333,527 persons, or 41 to the square mile. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 1,293,746; females, 1,039,781: proportion of males, 55·8 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 481,701; females, 378,289; total children, 859,990, or 38·2 per cent.: above 12 years—males, 742,553; females, 600,634; total adults, 1,343,187, or 61·8 per cent. The population, which is extremely scattered in all parts of the country, gathers thickest in Haidarábád District, which has an average of 78 persons to the square mile. In Shikárpur, the average falls to 76, and in the Frontier District of Upper Sind to 43. The extensive District of Karáchi, though it contains the capital town and largest commercial centre, has but 26 persons to the square mile; in Khairpur State, the average is only 21; and in the wide but desert expanse of the Thar and Párkár, it does not exceed 14. The religious and ethnical division of the people yields the following results:—Muhammadans, 1,716,655, or 77·93 per cent.; Hindus, 393,092, or 17·84 per cent.; Síkhs, 23,899, or 1·08 per cent.; Europeans, 2638, or 0·12 per cent.; Eurasians, 464, or 0·02 per cent.; Indo-Portuguese, 1150, or 0·05 per cent.; other non-Asiatics, 2057, or 0·09 per cent.; native Christians, 371, or 0·02 per cent.; Pársís, 810, or 0·04 per cent.; and 'others,' 62,041, or 2·81 per cent. The Muhammadans, who form the bulk of the inhabitants, fall naturally into two classes—the native Sindís, and the naturalized tribes, such as Sayyids, Afgháns, Baluchís, Africans, and Khwájas. The Sindís represent the original Hindu population, converted to Islám under the Ummayide Khálifas. They are taller and more robust than the natives of Bengal, of dark complexion, and muscular frame. Their detractors represent them as idle, apathetic and cowardly, addicted to drunkenness, and personally dirty; while their disinclination to truthfulness has given them a bad name amongst neighbouring tribes. On the other hand, they are quiet and inoffensive, kindly, faithful, and of unimpeachable honesty. In religion, they are Sunnis. The Sindís are subdivided into about 300 clans or tribes, but the caste system does not exist among them. The Sindí language belongs to the pure Neo-Sanskritic group, and contains far less of alien admixture than any of the cognate tongues. It stands closer to the old Prákrit than does the Maráthí, Hindí, or Bengalí; and it has preserved an immense number of grammatical forms which have dropped out of the other vernaculars. Three dialects of the Sindí are distinguished in Upper and Lower Sind and in the Thar, respectively. The literature of the Sindí language consists mainly of translations from

the Arabic, chiefly theological, and of a few rude national ballads. Among the races of foreign origin, the Sayyids were patronized by the Kalhora princes, who granted them several considerable estates; but the Tálpurs proved less liberal. The Afgháns came originally from Khorasán, and now reside in the neighbourhood of Haidarábád and in Northern Sind. They far surpass the Sindís in personal appearance, strength, and courage. The Baluchís, wild mountaineers from the barren hills to the westward, settled in Sind under the Tálpur dynasty, and received large *jágírs* in return for military services. They are fairer, more powerful, and hardier than the Sindís; they have genuine though peculiar ideas of honour; and they are brave soldiers, with a large share of national pride. On the other hand, they are grossly illiterate, rough in manners, drunken and debauched, violent and revengeful, and wholly addicted to coarse amusements. In religion, they belong to the Sunni sect, though the Tálpur Mírs, on their arrival in Sind, adopted the Shiá persuasion. About 80 clans are settled in the plains. The Africans represent the slaves of Sind, brought over by way of Maskat from Zanzibar or Abyssinia. Emancipated at the British annexation, they still marry, as a rule, within their own race, and remain inmates of their former masters' houses. A small body of Memons gather around Haidarábád, Sehwán, and Karáchi. They are doubtless Hindus by origin, who became Musalmáns and emigrated to Sind during the Kalhora rule. They engage in trade, agriculture, and breeding camels. Many of them possess great learning, and they have done more than any other class to introduce religious knowledge into the Province. The Khwájas, a numerous body in Karáchi, are heterodox Musalmáns, carrying the Shiá doctrines to an extreme. The Hindus occupy in Sind a position analogous to that of the Musalmáns in Hindustán. Few of them, apparently, belong to native families which have survived the long Muhammadan domination; they have generally immigrated from the Punjab in recent times, and retain their distinctive names, features, and religion. The Bráhmans comprise two classes, which do not intermarry; and they are mainly confined to the large towns. The lower castes are essentially similar to their brethren in the Punjab. The Síkhs reside in considerable numbers at Haidarábád, Sehwán, and other towns. KARACHI, the capital city, had a total population in 1872 of 56,753 persons; but its commercial importance is far greater than this total would seem to imply. SHIKARPUR, the great depôt of transit trade with the Bolán Pass and Khorásán, had 38,170; HAIDARABAD, the Tálpur capital, 35,272. The other chief towns and places of interest include—AROR, the capital of Sind under its Hindu Rájás; BRAHMANABAD, a mass of vast and extensive ruins of very great antiquity, near Sháhdádpur; the fortified island of BUKKUR, in the Indus; KETI, the port on the principal mouth of the

Indus (2199 persons); KHAIRPUR, the capital of the State of the same name (7275); KOTRI, the station on the Indus Valley Railway opposite Haidarábád (7949); LARKHANA, a considerable manufacturing town (10,643); ROHRI (8580); SEHWAN (4296), the deserted port of SHAH-BANDAR; SUKKUR, the great inland port of the Indus, and point of departure for the new line of rail to the Bolán Pass (13,318); TATTA, the old emporium on the seaboard (7951); and JACOBABAD, the chief military station of the Frontier District (10,954).

Agriculture.—The total extent of cultivated land in Sind in 1873-74 amounted to no more than 1,863,615 acres, by far the greater portion of the Province being absolutely barren. There are two principal harvests —the *rabí*, sown in August, September, or October, and reaped in February, March, or April; and the *kharíf*, sown during the floods of the Indus, in May, June, July, or August, and reaped in October, November, or December. The *rabí* consists of wheat, barley, gram, vetches, oil-seeds, indigo, hemp, and vegetables. The *kharíf* includes the millets known as *bájra* and *joar* (the two chief food grains in Sind), rice, oil-seeds, pulses, and cotton. The area under each staple in 1873-74 was as follows:—*Joár*, 388,418 acres; *bájra*, 358,670 acres; rice, 476,439 acres; oil-seeds, 216,199 acres; wheat, 260,056 acres; cotton, 50,577 acres; barley, 10,331 acres; indigo, 5757 acres; tobacco, 7365 acres; and sugar-cane, 3716 acres. The distribution into harvests was as follows:—*Kharíf*, 1,227,646 acres; *rabí*, 422,895 acres; intermediate or mixed, 213,074 acres. The fruits common to the country include dates, plantains, mangoes, limes, oranges, pomegranates, citrons, figs, grapes, tamarinds, mulberries, and melons. The apples of Sind are famous for their fine quality. The British authorities have lately introduced apricots, peaches, and nectarines, with excellent results. The methods of cultivation still differ little, if at all, from the primitive types. Rotation of crops is unknown, and the implements belong to the coarsest patterns. Two bullocks generally draw the clumsy native plough; while a heavy log of wood, with a man perched on either end, and drawn by four bullocks, does duty for a harrow. The dry character of the soil, and the almost complete absence of rain, render irrigation a matter of prime importance to the cultivator. Though situated on the very verge of either monsoon, the Province derives no benefit from their rainfall; for the north-western monsoon, which deluges the hills of Baluchistán, extends no farther eastward than Karáchi; while the south-western monsoon terminates at Lakhpat Bandar on the boundary of Cutch (Kachchh), as regularly as though it intentionally avoided the frontiers of Sind. Sometimes, indeed, for two or three years in succession, no rain falls in the Province. Under these circumstances, the Indus almost becomes to Sind what the Nile is to Egypt. Numerous irrigation canals, drawn from

the main river or its tributaries, intersect the country in every direction. These canals are carried away from the raised bed of the stream in an oblique direction, so as to secure the greatest possible fall per mile. None of them have their heads where the bank is permanent, and none are deep enough to draw off water except during inundation. The river must consequently rise several feet before the canals will fill. Many of the channels are old natural beds of the side branches, now deserted; and all have the appearance rather of rivers than of artificial cuts. The canal system is very imperfect, owing to the want of permanent head-works, and the constant accumulation of silt. Cultivation is accordingly exposed to many risks, except in those lands where irrigation is always carried on by means of water-wheels; but as this method is expensive, the poorer cultivators prefer the inferior and precarious tillage of lands which can be directly flooded from the canals, where a small deficiency of water often entirely cuts off the whole crop. From the capricious nature of the water supply, cultivation accordingly becomes a species of lottery, the cultivator being rich one season and a bankrupt the next. Too little or too much water, an early or a late supply, may destroy his only chance of a harvest. Owing to the frequent failures, agriculture is, on the whole, a poorly paid occupation; yet the peasantry prefer the gambling risk to steady and well-paid labour. This precariousness in the returns of cultivation renders the Sind peasantry an improvident and thriftless body. They are almost always in debt to the Hindu money-lenders, who often exact as much as cent. per cent. on their advances. The population is almost wholly engaged in agriculture, yet the Province does not usually produce much more than a sufficient quantity of food grains for its own consumption, and considerable imports take place in years of scarcity. The land tenures of Sind belong to extremely simple types. The landowners may be divided into three classes—large proprietors, a numerically small but very influential body; the holders of small estates, of a few hundred acres, answering to the middle-class gentry; and the peasant proprietors, a large body, paying revenue directly to Government, or to the alienee holding Government rights. The British authorities have upheld and fostered the rights of the smaller occupants against the encroachments of the *zamíndárs*, thus encouraging the spirit of independence amongst the cultivating classes.

Commerce and Communications.—The trade of Sind centres almost entirely upon the great seaport of Karáchi, a creation of British rule, and now the chief port of entry and exit for the Punjab. The total value of the imports of Karáchi in 1873-74 amounted to £1,774,423; while those of the whole Province, excluding the capital, amounted only to £40,242. In the same year, the exports of Karáchi amounted to £2,112,419, and of the remainder of Sind to £125,774. The staple

articles of export are raw cotton, wool, and grain of various kinds. Karáchi has long formed the chief outlet for the cotton crops of Sind and the Punjab. The Province at one time actually imported the material necessary for its own slight domestic manufactures from Cutch (Kachchh) and Guzerat, to the amount of several thousand *maunds* annually. About 1840, however, extensive cotton plantations sprang up in Sind itself. In 1861, exports first began; and in 1866, they had reached the total of 28,128,900 lbs. A large portion of this amount, however, came from the Punjab. The home yield at present averages from 18,000 to 20,000 bales annually; though it is calculated that the Province still contains 3,000,000 acres of uncultivated land capable of growing the plant. The remainder consists of Punjab cotton, from the Districts of Múltán, Lahore, and Amritsar; but it bears in the European markets the name of 'Sind,' from its place of shipment. Since 1870, a large trade in raw cotton has sprung up with China. The wool of Sind forms a staple of almost equal importance; though the larger portion of the quantity exported comes, not from the Province itself, but from Firozpur District in the Punjab, and from Afghánistán and Baluchistán. The supply from the latter countries is brought into the market in a dirty and inferior condition. The value of wool exported from Karáchi in 1873-74 amounted to £634,874. Extensive beds of bay salt occur on the Sirganda Creek, an eastern arm of the Indus, said to be capable of supplying the necessary consumption of the whole world for a century. The deposit is remarkably pure, and consists of large crystals. Excise restrictions long prevented it from competing with other Indian salts, but these have now been removed. The great harbour works of KARACHI are more fully described under that article. Communications are carried on by means of the Indus, by numerous excellent roads, and by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. The river, the great source of wealth to the Province, is under the charge of a special Government department, the Indus Conservancy, which removes all obstructions to navigation as soon as they appear. A flotilla of steamboats, in connection with the railway, plies regularly up and down, carrying the manufactures of Europe upward, and the produce of Sind and the Punjab downward. The Sind section of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway runs from Karáchi to Kotri, a distance of 106 miles, its main object being to facilitate the transmission of goods from Karáchi to Northern Sind and the Punjab, or *vice versa;* thus saving the long detour by sea and river between Karáchi and Kotri, *viâ* the Indus Delta. From Kotri the line is now continued, under the name of the Indus Valley State Railway, to Sukkur, whence a newly constructed branch starts for the Bolán Pass. The Indus at Sukkur has not yet been bridged; but from Rohri, on the opposite bank of the river, the railway proceeds into Baháwalpur

State, and so joins the Punjab system at Múltán. The submarine cable, laid in 1864, connects Karáchi with Fao in Turkish Arabia, and thence by Turkish Government telegraph with Constantinople and Western Europe. Another line runs from Karáchi along the Makrán coast, and thence by submarine cable to Bushire in Persia, connecting ultimately with the Russian system, as well as with the Siemens line to Berlin and England.

Administration.—Sind forms a Province under a Commissioner, subordinate to the Government of Bombay. It contains three Collectorates —those of KARACHI, SHIKARPUR, and HAIDARABAD; besides the two Political Superintendencies of THAR AND PARKAR, and the FRONTIER DISTRICT, with the Native State of KHAIRPUR. The total imperial revenue of the Province in 1874-75 amounted to £648,014, of which £397,034 was derived from the land tax. The other chief sources of revenue were forests, excise, customs, stamps, and telegraphs. The local revenue in the same year amounted to £125,382, arising mainly from public works and municipal funds. The land tax ordinarily forms two-thirds of the net revenue of Sind; but remissions are constantly necessitated by the droughts, floods, or bursting of embankments. In spite of these drawbacks, however, the revenue has steadily increased under British rule. The cost of clearing canals forms one of the most important items of public expenditure. The total police force of the Province consisted in the year 1874-75 of 3977 officers and men; but the area includes so large an extent of desert, that any general statement of numbers per square mile could only mislead. In Haidarábád District, where population is thickest, there is 1 policeman to every 11 square miles and to every 824 inhabitants; in Karáchi District, including the capital, there is 1 policeman to every 12 square miles and to every 575 of the population; while in the desert District of the Thar and Párkár, there is only 1 policeman to every 25 square miles and to every 358 inhabitants. The postal department maintains 3 disbursing and 48 non-disbursing post offices. Education has made rapid and satisfactory progress in Sind since the British annexation. The total number of Government schools in 1873-74 amounted to 213, of which 26 were for girls. The number of pupils was 12,728, of whom 8531 were Hindus and only 4139 Muhammadans. The Musalmán population show but little interest in education, and specially neglect that of their daughters. The figures, however, exhibit a great advance upon the condition of Sind in 1859-60, when the Province contained only 20 Government schools, and the educational budget amounted only to £1299; whereas by 1873-74, it had risen to £21,184. The number of indigenous schools at either date cannot be accurately ascertained. Haidarábád and Sukkur each possess a normal school, and the former town has also an engineering school.

Among private institutions, the European and Indo-European schools at Karáchi, and the missionary schools in that town and Haidarábád, teach up to the matriculation standard of the Bombay University.

Medical Aspects.—Owing to its prevalent aridity and the absence of the monsoons, Sind ranks amongst the hottest and most variable climates in India. The average temperature of the summer months is 95° F., and that of the winter months 60°. But the thermometer frequently rises in summer to 110° and occasionally to 120°; while in winter it falls at night a few degrees below freezing-point, and ranges even in the day-time from 40° to 80°. No other part of India has so long a continuance of excessively hot weather, owing to the deficiency of rain. The climate on the sea-coast, however, is much more equable in temperature than that of Upper Sind; and Karáchi, the great centre of European population, enjoys a strong sea-breeze, which blows day and night from April to October. In Northern Sind, the extremes of temperature are strongly marked. The thermometer at Shikárpur often sinks below freezing-point in winter, and ice forms as late as February; yet in summer, for weeks together, the readings at midnight do not fall below 100°. This great and prolonged heat, coupled with the exhalations arising from the stagnant pools left after the annual inundation, produces a fatal fever and ague. The natives suffer severely from its effects, and British troops have often experienced a terrible mortality. The other prevailing diseases include small-pox and cholera. The latter complaint has often appeared in an epidemic form, and wrought great mischief in the country districts; but at Karáchi, its ravages have lately been averted by the excellent sanitary precautions taken by the British authorities. Five civil surgeons are stationed respectively at Karáchi, Kotri, Haidarábád, Shikárpur, and Jacobábád, and an additional surgeon at Sukkur. Numerous charitable dispensaries have been established in all the chief towns. Vaccination has made satisfactory progress, no opposition being raised except amongst the Hindu population. In 1874-75, the Government vaccinators operated upon 94,252 persons.

Sindewáhí (*Sindwai*).—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 17′ N., and long. 79° 42′ E., 16 miles north of Múl. Estimated pop. (1872), 4356, mostly Telingas. A fine tank 3 miles north-east of the town irrigates a wide extent of rice and sugar-cane fields. Sindewáhí manufactures cotton cloth and bangles, which are exported; and possesses some trade in cotton, grain, and raw sugar. It has Government schools for boys and girls, and is a police outpost.

Sindhiapura.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 2½ square miles. The chief is named Chauhán Jitabáwa. Estimated revenue (1875), £260; of which £6 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Sindí.—Town in Wardha District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 78° 56′ E., 20 miles east of Wardha town, on the Great India Peninsula Railway, which has a station here. Pop. (1872), 4867, chiefly weavers and cultivators. Manufactures—coarse cotton cloth, oil, bangles, and shoes. A market is held every Thursday and Friday. Sindí has a school (with an English department), a public garden, a dispensary, and a storage yard for cotton near the railway station.

Sindkher.—Chief town of a *parganá* of the same name in Buldána District, Berar. Lat. 19° 57′ N., long. 76° 10′ E. According to one tradition, the town was founded and named about 1000 years ago by a king Sinduráur; according to another, it takes its name from Sidha Khetak, 'village of saints,' an unbroken line of whom is said to have lived here since the foundation of the place. The *parganá* of Sindkher was granted in *jágír* to the Kází of the town about 1450 A.D.; who afterwards gave it over voluntarily to the Jáduns, the head and founder of whom was Lakhjí, a Rájput from Kurwáli in North Hindustán. Since then, Sindkher has been regarded as the chief seat of this family, who subsequently rose to much fame and power. The *jágír* of the *parganá* was held by the Jádons for about 100 years, but was then restored to the Kází of the day by Murshid Alí Khán, a nobleman who came to Sindkher on some commission from the Delhi Government. The half-finished fort still stands north-west of Sindkher; it is about 150 yards square. The temple of Nilkantheswar to the south-west is supposed to be the oldest structure built by Hemár Panth; it bears an inscription, which is, however, nearly effaced, being some feet under water in the tank near the temple. Several palaces, such as the Mahálbágh, Mahákál, the Desmukh's residence, and three or four large wells built by the Jádons, attest the magnificence and prosperity of the town in their time. In one of the frequent transfers from the Nizám to the Marhattás, Sindkher fell to Ránojí Sindhia, who held it for nearly sixty years. It was restored to the Nizám in 1803. Báji Ráo Peshwá encamped at Sindkher for some days in 1818, when the British troops were on his track. In 1804, General Wellesley (Wellington) writes: 'Sindkher is a nest of thieves; the situation of this country is shocking; the people are starving in hundreds, and there is no Government to afford the slightest relief.' The decline of the town was hastened by marauders, whose names—Mohan Sinh, Budlam Sháh, and Ghází Khán—are yet remembered with terror. Of the once extensive irrigated gardens of Sindkher, only a few fruit-trees survive.

Sindkhera. — Municipal town in Khándesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 17′ 30″ N., and long. 74° 50′ E., north of Dhulia. Pop. (1872), 4501; average municipal revenue, £116. Post office.

Sindurjana.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar.—*See* SENDURJANA.

Sindwa.—Village and fort in Central India; situated in lat. 21° 40′ N., and long. 75° 20′ E. (Thornton), on the route from Mhow to Bombay, 90 miles south-west of the former town and 274 north-east of the latter. It lies 9 miles outside and north of the Sindwa Ghát, a somewhat steep but much frequented mountain pass, leading from the highlands of the Sátpura range to the valley of the Tápti in Khándesh. Thornton says the fort, which is of masonry, about a mile in circumference, was, with a glacis of 2000 yards, ceded to the British Government by Holkar by the treaty of Mandeswar; but was restored to him upon the condition of his building a bridge over the Gohi river.

Singa.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab; leading across the Himálayan range, which bounds Kunáwar to the south. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 78° 29′ E. Stated by Thornton to be open from May till the middle of August, but impracticable at other times from the depth of the snow. Elevation above sea level, between 16,000 and 17,000 feet.

Singálilá.—Hill range in Dárjíling District, Bengal. An immense spur, 60 miles long, stretching south from Kánchanjangá to the plains of India, and separating Sikkim from East Nepál. Lat. 27° 1′ to 27° 14′ N., and long. 88° to 88° 2′ E. The waters from its west flank flow into the Támbar, and those from the east into the Great Ranjít, a feeder of the Tísta. The highest peaks of the Singálilá range are—PHALALUM, 12,042; SUBARGUM, 10,430 feet; TANGLU, 10,084; SITANG; and SINCHAL PAHAR.

Singánallúr.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras, and a station on the Madras South-Western Railway; situated in lat. 12° 9′ N., and long. 77° 16′ 40″ E. Pop. (1871), 7125, inhabiting 1391 houses. The town and fort were destroyed by the Marhattás. The town has recovered under British rule, and is now a busy place.

Singanmat.—Principal peak in the Sankara range, Santál Parganás District, Bengal. Well known as a landmark to all the country round.

Singapur (*Singapuram*).—Town in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Madras; situated in lat. 19° 3′ 19″ N., and long. 82° 43′ 16″ E., 21 miles west of Bissem Katak and on the Banjara route to Nágpur. Estimated pop. (1871), about 800, chiefly Konds.

Singárapet (*Singaricotta*, *Tingrecotta*).—Pass connecting the Districts of Salem and South Arcot, Madras.—*See* CHENGAMA.

Singaurgarh.—Hill fort in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 32′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 47′ E., 26 miles north-west of Jabalpur city, on a high hill commanding the narrow Sangrámpur valley. Founded by Rájá Bel, a Chandela Rájput, it was enlarged by Rajá Dalpat Sá, of Garha-Mandla, who made it the seat of Government about 1540. It was the scene of the defeat of Rání Durgávatí by Asaf Khán, an officer of Akbar; and the fort stood a siege of nine months in the days of Aurangzeb. The remains of the outer circum-

vallation are very extensive. Of the inner fort on a high central hill, only a tower and some ruined reservoirs remain. Two smaller towers also stand on neighbouring hills.

Singbhúm (*Sinhbhúm; Sinha-bhúmi*, 'Lion Land').—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 59′ and 22° 53′ N. lat., and between 85° 2′ and 86° 56′ E. long. Approximate area, 4503 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 415,023 persons. These are the figures given in the Census Report; but since it was published, the area and population of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán have been deducted, as they had already been included in the Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States. The corrected area of Singbhúm District, according to the Parliamentary Abstract of 1879, is 3897 square miles, and the population 322,396. The District forms the south-eastern portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Division. It is bounded on the north by the Districts of Lohárdagá and Mánbhúm, on the east by Midnapur, on the south by the Tributary States of Orissa, and on the west by Lohárdagá and the Tributary States of Chutiá Nágpur. The boundaries follow for the most part the crests of the hill ranges which wall in the District on every side; but owing to the fact that few of the ranges have distinctive names, it is impossible to define the boundary line more precisely. A portion of the northern boundary, 15 miles in length, is marked by the Subarnarekhá river, which fills a gap between two hill ridges; and a still smaller part of the southern boundary coincides with the same river, which here separates Singbhúm from the Orissa State of Morbhanj. Farther west, again, the Baitarani river, rising in Keunjhar, forms 8 miles of the boundary between that State and Singbhúm District. Singbhúm District is made up of the Government estate of the Kolhán or Ho-desam ('country of the Hos'), the Fiscal Division of Dhalbhúm, and the political estates of Paráhát, Sáraikala, and Kharsáwán. The administrative headquarters are at CHAIBASA.

Physical Aspects.—The central portion of Singbhúm consists of a long undulating tract of country, running east and west, and enclosed by great hill ranges. The depressions which lie between the successive ridges are terraced for rice cultivation on the system followed in the Districts of HAZARIBAGH and LOHARDAGA; and the scenery in this central strip, which is the most fertile part, is like that of Chutiá Nágpur Proper. It is fairly clear from forest, and varies in elevation above sea level from 400 feet near the Subarnarekhá on the east, to 750 feet around the station of Cháibásá. To the south of this is an elevated plateau embracing 700 square miles of country, where the general level rises to upwards of 1000 feet, and meets the hills of Keunjhar State. The west of the District, bordering on Chutiá Nágpur, is a mountainous tract of vast extent, sparsely inhabited by the wildest of the Kols, and con-

sidered by Colonel Dalton to be the region from which that tribe first descended into the plains of Singbhúm. The extreme south-west corner, bordering on Gángpur State, is a still grander mass of mountains, rising to a height of 3500 feet, and known as 'Saranda of the seven hundred hills.' The population is very scattered; and the whole of Saranda contains but a few poor hamlets nestling in deep valleys, and belonging for the most part to one of the least reclaimed tribes of Kols. From the Layádá Hill range on the north-west of Singbhúm, many rocky spurs strike out into the District; the more prominent of them attaining an elevation of 2900 feet. Among other ranges and peaks, the following may be mentioned:—The Chaitanpur range, in the estate of Kharsáwán, reaches an elevation of 2529 feet. The Kápargádi range, a conspicuous ridge, rises abruptly from the plain; its highest peak is 1398 feet above the sea, and from that point the range runs south-east till it culminates in Tuiligár Hill (2492 feet). On the south-west of the District, a series of hills without any general name rise to a height of 3500 feet, and entirely occupy the tract referred to above as 'Saranda of the seven hundred hills.' A conspicuous spur of this mass of hills stretches out towards Cháibásá, and culminates in the peak of Angárbari, 2137 feet high. The principal rivers of the District are the SUBARNAREKHA (chief affluents, the Karkai and Sanjai) and the KOEL, with its affluents the North and South KARO and the KOINA. About two-thirds of the area of Singbhúm is covered with primeval forest, containing some valuable timber-trees. Jungle products are abundant, but, owing to the isolated position of the District, they yield no revenue. The forests give shelter to tigers, leopards, bears, buffaloes, and several kinds of deer; and small herds of elephants occasionally wander from the Meghásani Hills in Morbhanj. Wild ducks, pigeons, geese, snipe, partridge, and quail are found in the low-lying lands. The pangolin or scaly ant-eater is one of the curiosities of the District. Snakes of all kinds abound.

History.—The following section of this article is condensed from Colonel Dalton's valuable *Ethnology of Bengal*, the portions used being quoted in full in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 107-114. The Singbhúm Rájput chiefs have been known to the officers of the British Government since 1803, in which year the Marquis of Wellesley, Governor-General, caused friendly communications to be addressed to the ancestor of the present Rájá of Sáraikalá (whose territory adjoined the Jungle Mahals, then under the East India Company), regarding the assistance which he promised to render in the prosecution of the war against Rághojí Bhonslá of Nágpur. There does not appear to have been any intercourse between British officials and the people of the Kolhán previous to the year 1819. Of the interior of their country, for years after the acquisition of the surrounding Districts, nothing whatever was known. The Hos or Larka Kols would allow no strangers

to settle in, or even pass through, the Kolhán; and pilgrims to Jagannáth had to make a circuit of several days' journey to avoid it. In 1819, the Assistant Political Agent was directed to proceed to Páráhát, to negotiate a settlement with its chief; but he did not succeed in penetrating so far into their country. In 1820, the Rája of Páráhát acknowledged himself a feudatory of the British Government, and agreed to pay a small annual tribute. At this time, the Rájá and *zamíndárs* of Singbhúm were pressing on the Political Agent, Major Roughsedge, their claims to supremacy in the Kolhán, asserting that the Kols were their subjects in rebellion, and urging on Government to force them to return to their allegiance. The Kols denied that they were subject to the chiefs. Until they quarrelled they regarded them, they said, as friends and allies, not as rulers; and if they had at any time been their subjects, they had achieved their liberty in various hard-fought fields, and were entitled to their independence. The chiefs admitted that for more than fifty years they had been unable to exercise any control over them; and Major Roughsedge refers to three formidable but abortive attempts made (the last in 1800) to subjugate them. After these attacks on their independence, it appears that the Larkas retaliated on all the bordering States, committing great ravages and depopulating entire villages. In 1820, Major Roughsedge entered their country with a force of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, with the avowed object of compelling the Kols to submit to the Rájás who claimed their allegiance. He did his best to conciliate them, and was at first in hopes that he had succeeded. He was allowed to advance unmolested into the heart of their territory; but while encamped at Cháibásá on the Roro river, near the present station of the same name, an attack was made within sight of the camp by a body of Larkas, who killed one man and wounded several others with their battle-axes. They then moved away towards the hills; but their retreat was cut off by Lieutenant Maitland, who in several encounters dispersed them with great loss. The whole of the northern *pírs* or communities entered into engagements to acknowledge and pay tribute to the Rájá of Singbhúm. But in leaving the country, Major Roughsedge had to encounter the still fiercer Kols of the southern *pírs*, and, after fighting every inch of his way out of Singbhúm, left them unsubdued. On his leaving the District, a war broke out between the Larkas who had submitted, and those who had not; and a body of 100 Hindustání Irregulars, sent to the assistance of the former, were driven out by the latter. In 1821, a large force was employed to reduce the Larkas; and after a month's hostilities, the leaders, encouraged by a proclamation, surrendered. After a year or two of peace, however, they again became restive, and gradually extended the circle of their depredations. The assistance rendered by them to the Nágpur Kols in 1831-32 was too

gross a defiance of the Government to escape serious notice. Sir Thomas Wilkinson, who was then Agent to the Governor-General for the newly formed Non-Regulation Province of the South-Western Frontier, at once recognised the necessity of a thorough subjugation of the Kols, and equally the impolicy and futility of forcing them to submit to the chiefs. He proposed an occupation of Singbhúm by an adequate force, and suggested that, when the people were thoroughly subdued, they should be placed under the direct management of a British officer, to be stationed at Cháibásá in the heart of their country. These views were accepted; a force under Colonel Richards entered Singbhúm in November 1836, and by the end of the February following all the refractory head-men had submitted and entered into engagements to bear true allegiance to the British Government. From this time until 1857, there was no disturbance, and the District seemed to have settled down into quietness and prosperity. In that year, the Páráhát Rájá, after wavering for a little between loyalty and rebellion, chose the latter, and a considerable section of the Kols supported him. A tedious and difficult campaign ensued, the rebels taking refuge in the mountain fastnesses whenever they were driven from the plains. Eventually, however, they surrendered (in 1859), and the capture of the Rájá put an end to the disturbances. The Kols have given no trouble since that time.

Population.—The first attempt at an enumeration of the people of Singbhúm was made in 1867, when a Census was undertaken of the Government estate of the Kolhán. From the results of this, an estimate was made for the total population of the District, which amounted, according to the calculations, to 355,906. The regular Census of 1872 was taken on an approximate area of 4503 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 415,023 persons, dwelling in 84,416 houses; average density of the population, 92 per square mile. Since the Census Report was published, the area and population of Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán have been deducted, as they had already been included in the Chutiá Nágpur Tributary States. The corrected area of Singbhúm District, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, is 3897 square miles, and the population, 322,396. The following figures, however, are taken from the Census Report, and include Sáraikalá and Kharsáwán. The population is very unequally distributed in different parts of the District —thus, the estates of Kharsáwán and Sáraikalá have an average of 176 and 145 persons to the square mile, while the fiscal division of Dhalbhúm shows 98, and the Kolhán and Páráhát only 79 and 69 respectively. The number of males in the District in 1872 was 207,926, and of females, 207,097; proportion of males, 50·1 per cent. of the total population. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years old—males, 88,617; females, 77,257; total children, 165,874, or 39·97

per cent.: above 12 years—males, 119,309; females, 129,840; total adults 249,149, or 60·03 per cent. of the total population. The ethnical division of the people was returned as follows:—Non-Asiatics, 20; and Asiatics, 415,003. Belonging to aboriginal tribes, there were 256,065; of semi-Hinduized aborigines, the number was 28,747; Hindus numbered 124,125; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 3577; and Muhammadans, 2487. Among aboriginal tribes, the most numerous are the Kols, of whom there were 150,925 in 1872; the Santáls, 51,132; and the Bhúmijs, 37,253. Of semi-aborigines, the Bhuiyas numbered 12,078. The name Kol, as popularly used, includes not only Hos and Mundas, but also the Dravidian Uráons, while its scientific use embraces the three cognate Kolarian tribes of Mundas, Hos or Larka Kols, and Bhúmijs. The bulk of the Kols enumerated above are Hos, otherwise called Larka or 'fighting' Kols, the characteristic aboriginal race of Singbhúm District. A very full and detailed account of this tribe, taken from Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal*, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 39-59. They appear to have no traditions of origin or migration that throw much light on their history. As has been said in the preceding section, they isolated themselves jealously for many years, and even at the present day the exclusiveness of the old Hos is remarkable. They will not allow aliens to hold lands near their villages; and, indeed, if it were left to them, no strangers would be permitted to settle in the Kolhán. Physically, the Singbhúm Hos are the finest of all the Kolarian tribes. The men average 5 feet 5 or 6 inches in height; the women 5 feet 2 inches; and both men and women are noticeable for their fine, erect carriage and long free stride. They do not encumber themselves with much clothing, and even wealthy men move about all but naked, as proudly as if they were clad in purple and fine linen. The Hos are fair marksmen with the bow and arrow, and great sportsmen. They are a purely agricultural people, and their festivals are all connected with that pursuit. They show great reverence for the dead, and their peculiar and touching funeral ceremonies are well described by Colonel Dalton. The same writer describes the Hos as possessing 'a manner free from servility, but never rude; a love, or at least the practice, of truth; a feeling of self-respect, rendering them keenly sensitive under rebuke;' and he adds that since they have come under our rule, 'they have become less suspicious, less revengeful, less bloodthirsty, less contumacious,' than they were. They are still, however, very impulsive and easily excited to rash, headstrong action. The number of Bráhmans in Singbhúm in 1872 was 4098; of Khandáits, 2255; and of Rájputs, 1718. The most numerous Hindu castes in the District are the Goálás, a pastoral caste, numbering in 1872, 34,987; the Tántís, or weavers, 20,758; and the

Kurmís, a caste of cultivators, 19,667. There is no municipality in Singbhúm, and CHAIBASA, the headquarters station, with a population of over 4000, is little more than a large village. A fair is held here about Christmas time. In the wilder jungles to the south and east of the Kolhán proper, there still exist, in the shape of tanks and architectural remains, traces of a people more civilised than the Kols of the present day. The most interesting of these are—Benu Ságar, a fine tank surrounded by the ruins of what must have been a large town; Kiching, with its temples still resorted to by pilgrims; and two very curious artificial pools of water, called the Surmí and Durmí. The sepulchral and monumental stones, which are characteristic of the Mundas and Hos, occur in large numbers throughout the District.

Agriculture.—The system of rice cultivation is similar to that described in the article on HAZARIBAGH, though it is not so fully developed here as in that District and LOHARDAGA. Land is classified on the same principle, and the crops are the same; but, except in villages occupied by the Hindu caste of Kurmís, the general style of cultivation is primitive, and the land undergoes scarcely any systematic preparation for the crop. Of late years, however, the Kols have made a considerable advance in the methods of tillage, and now get three crops in the year when formerly they had but one. The chief crops of the District, besides rice, are wheat, Indian corn, peas, gram, mustard, sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco. The area under different crops has been estimated as follows:—Rice, 503,233 acres; cotton, 23,637 acres; Indian corn, 63,029 acres; oil-seeds, 40,665 acres; wheat, 1271 acres; pulses, 3813 acres. As, however, great uncertainty attaches to all the agricultural statistics of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, these figures must be looked upon as approximate only. Wages in Singbhúm have not risen of late years in proportion to the increase in the price of ordinary food staples. Labour is abundant, and families are, as usual in the case of a considerable aboriginal population, large. Unskilled labourers (male) received in 1872 from 2¼d. to 3d. a day, and females 1½d. The rate for women is the same as it was in former years, but men used only to receive 1⅞d. Bricklayers and carpenters now earn 6d. per diem; in former years their wages were 3¾d. The price of the best cleaned rice in 1871 was 2s. 8¾d. per cwt., and of coarse rice 2s. 3½d. The price of the best paddy in that year was 1s. 1d., and of Indian corn 1s. 8½d. per cwt. These prices represent a rise of from 25 to 50 per cent. on the rates which ruled ten years earlier. The prevailing land tenures vary in different parts of the District. In the Kolhán there is now only one kind of tenure,—under which rent is paid direct to Government by each individual *rayat*, whose right of occupation is hereditary, but who is liable to enhancement of rent at the expiration of the current settlement. Dhalbhúm bears a fixed assessment of £426, 14s. It was

originally one of the Jungle Mahál s, and was transferred to Singbhúm from Mánbhúm in 1846. The proprietor of the *parganá* calls himself Rájá, but he is officially styled *zamíndár*. Among the intermediate tenures between the *zamíndár* and the cultivators may be mentioned—*khoroposh* or maintenance grants (74 in number) to younger members of the *zamíndár's* family; *ghátwálí* tenures for some kinds of police service, the precise nature of which cannot now be ascertained; and *sad chakrán* holdings (51), service tenures entirely dependent on the pleasure of the *zamíndár*. The other prevalent intermediate tenures are—*Brahmottar*, 93; *debottar*, 85; and *pradháni* or farming leases for (839) limited or (74) unlimited periods. The actual cultivating tenures in Dhalbhúm are known by the generic term *prajáli* (from *prajá*, a peasant), and are of two kinds, *khúnt katti*, and *thiká*. The *khúnt katti* cultivators are supposed to be descendants of the persons who originally reclaimed the land from jungle, and formed the village; all of them have permanent rights of occupancy, and some have the further privilege of holding at a fixed rate of rent. *Rayats* holding under the *thiká* tenure are persons who came into the village after the first reclaimers. Their holdings are not transferable, and they have no share in the common rights of the village. The tenures in the political estates of Páráhát, Sáraikalá, and Kharsáwán do not materially differ from the intermediate tenures in Dhalbhúm, just mentioned. *Chakrán* holdings are very numerous, and the chiefs consequently derive a proportionally small income from their large estates.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to partial scarcities, caused by deficiency in the local rainfall. In years of drought, the cultivators resort to artificial reservoirs, wells, and tanks for water to irrigate their fields. The famine of 1866 was felt throughout the District, but only severely in Dhalbhúm, where the chief food of the people is rice. The highest price reached for ordinary rice in Singbhúm in that year (in August) was £1, 2s. a cwt. The District mainly depends on the winter rice crop; and if the yield of that crop were to be less than one-half, and if the price of ordinary rice were to rise as high as from 7s. to 9s. a cwt., these symptoms should be considered as a warning of approaching famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Singbhúm is carried on mainly by means of permanent markets, the chief of which are held at Cháibásá, Kharsáwán, Sáraikalá, and Baháragarhá. The principal exports are common cereals, pulses, oil-seeds, stick-lac, iron, and *tasar*-silk cocoons; the chief imports—salt, cotton yarn, English piece-goods, tobacco, and brass utensils. The value of the silk export was estimated in 1871 to amount to £10,000; and it is said that the total value of the District exports largely exceeds that of the imports. The chief manufactures of Singbhúm are coarse cotton cloth, brass and earthenware cooking

utensils, and soapstone platters. There are a few weavers of *tasar*-silk cloth in Sáraikalá. Copper is found in Sáraikalá and Dhalbhúm, and an English Company was started in 1857 to work the mine. The enterprise was conducted on too expensive a scale, and failed in 1859; a second Company, formed in 1862, was not more fortunate, and was dissolved in 1864, without having even paid rent for the two years over which its operations extended. The total length of roads in Singbhúm in 1870 was 306 miles, maintained at an average annual cost for repairs of £830.

Administration.—In 1837, the revenue of the District, which was then smaller in area than at present, amounted to £527, almost entirely derived from land; and the current expenditure to £1011, or nearly double the revenue. In 1846, the *parganá* of Dhalbhúm, assessed in perpetuity at £426, was added to the District; and in 1850-51, the total revenue was returned at £1219, and the civil expenditure at £1928. Thus within a period of thirteen years, between 1837 and 1850-51, the revenue was more than doubled, owing mainly to the extension of cultivation in the Kolhán, and the amount accruing from Dhalbhúm. It failed, however, to cover the expenditure on civil administration, which had increased by 58 per cent. within the same period. In 1870-71, the net revenue amounted to £9500, and the total expenditure to £10,163. The expansion of revenue is chiefly due to the settlement of the Kolhán in 1866 at enhanced rates, and the sequestration in 1858 of the estate of Páráhát. The land tax forms by far the largest item in the revenue of the District. In 1837, it amounted to £523, derived solely from the Kolhán. In 1846, the land revenue was £1133; and in that year the *zamíndár* of Dhalbhúm was the only registered proprietor, and Dhalbhúm and the Kolhán were the only two estates on the District rent-roll. In 1870-71, the land revenue demand was £6192, the number of estates being three. For police purposes, the District is divided into five estates—viz. Kolhán, Páráhát, Kharsáwán, Sáraikalá, and Dhalbhúm, the last named containing the two *thánás* or police circles of Baháragarhá and Kálkápur. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 186 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4164. There was also a rural police or village watch of 1671 men, maintained by contributions from the villagers, and costing £907. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property in the District consisted of 1857 officers and men, showing (according to the Census returns of area and population) 1 man to every 2·42 square miles of the area and to every 223 of the population. The estimated total cost was £5071, giving an average of £1, 2s. 6¼d. per square mile of area and 3d. per head of the population. Suicide has always been a characteristic crime of the District; and in 1871, no fewer than 54 persons destroyed themselves, of whom

23 were males and 31 females. Of these 54 suicides, 48 were Kols, who are an extremely sensitive race. The average daily number of prisoners in the Cháibásá jail in 1872 was 84. The progress of education in Singbhúm has, owing to its secluded position, been very slow, but of late years there has been a great improvement in this respect. The number of Government and aided schools in 1870-71 was 9, with 684 pupils. By 1871-72, the number of schools had increased to 34, and of pupils to 1022; and in 1872-73, there were 63 schools, with 3144 pupils. There are no administrative Subdivisions in Singbhúm, nor are there any *parganás* properly so called. The real internal divisional units of the District are the estates already referred to. The *pír*, or group of villages, is the administrative unit of the old village organization of the Hos and Mundas; but the fiscal character which it bears in the Kolhán is solely of British institution, and does not form part of the indigenous system. It is both smaller and more symmetrical than the *parganá* of the Regulation Districts.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Singbhúm is, as might be supposed from its inland position, dry. The civil station of Cháibásá is healthy, but the jungle-clad hill tracts are so malarious that they cannot be visited with safety before the month of November. December and January are the coldest months, and at this season the thermometer sometimes falls as low as 50° F. The weather in the hot season is extremely trying, the thermometer frequently marking 106° F. in the shade. The average annual rainfall is returned at 53 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers of the ordinary type. Epidemics of small-pox and cholera have occasionally occurred; the severest recent outbreak of cholera was that which immediately followed the famine of 1866. There is a charitable dispensary at Cháibásá.

Singeswarthán.—Village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 58′ 48″ N., and long. 86° 50′ 31″ E., 4 miles north of Madahpurá. Well known in Behar for being the scene of the largest elephant fair north of the Ganges; this is held in January, and attended by traders from Purniah, Monghyr, Tirhut, and the neighbouring parts of Nepál. Elephants are brought from various places in India; native shoes, English cloth, horses, long Nepálese knives or *kukrís* form the other principal articles of commerce. Temple belonging to the Pándes.

Singhána.—Town in Jáipur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 28° 5′ N., and long. 75° 44′ E., 95 miles south-west of Delhi, and 80 north of Jáipur city. Elphinstone describes it as a handsome town built of stone, on the skirts of a hill of purplish rock, about 600 feet high. A copper-mine in a rocky hill, 2 miles south-west of the town, contains abundance of ore of a poor quality, yielding from 2 to 7 per cent. of metal. The miners, says Thornton, pay to the Rájá a sixth

of the produce, besides a fixed rent of £1400 annually. There are two ores, a sulphate and a sulphuret.

Singímárí.—Village and *thána* or police station in the south-west of Goálpára District, Assam, near the left bank of the Brahmaputra; about 42 miles west of Turá station in the Gáro Hills, with which it is connected by road.

Singímárí.—Principal river of Kuch Behar State, Bengal. Entering the State under the name of the Jáldhaká, at its extreme north-west corner, near Moranger-hát in Khíti, it flows in a south-eastern direction by the villages of Giládángá, Pánigrám, Dhaibángá, Khaterbárí, and Mátábhángá. In the middle of its course it is called the Mansháhí, and lower down, the Singímárí. It has several cross communications with the Dharlá or Torshá, and finally joins that river on the southern border of the State, near the trading villages of Durgápur and Gitáldaha. It has several large tributaries, among which may be mentioned the Mujnái, Satangá, Duduyá, Dolang, and Dálkhoá. The capital of Kuch Behar was formerly situated on the banks of the Singímárí, near Gosáinímarái (at Kamatápur), where the ruins of temples and fortresses still attest the bygone greatness of former days. The river is navigable all the year round by boats of 100 *maunds* burden as far as the Subdivisional station of Mátábhángá, and even a little beyond, and in the rainy season is largely used by boats of all sizes.

Singlá. — River in the extreme south-east of Sylhet District, Assam, flowing north from the Lushái Hills into the Surmá. It has given its name to an elephant *mahál* or hunting ground, and also to a forest reserve.

Singpho Hills.—Tract of country bordering the extreme eastern frontier of Assam, occupied by the Singphos, a wild tribe who are said to be an offshoot of the Ka-khyens of Burma. In their own language, the word 'Singpho' means man. In ethnical characteristics, language, and religion, the Singphos differ markedly from the Khamtís and other neighbouring races of Shan origin. They are said to have first settled in their present home towards the close of the 18th century, when the power of the Aham kings was falling into decay. Their permanent villages were placed on the Tengápání river east of Sadiyá, and on the Buri Dihing river in the tract called Námrúp. They took advantage of the disturbed state of Upper Assam, caused by the rebellion of the Moámáriás, to ravage the whole valley of the Brahmaputra, and carry off numbers of the Assamese into slavery. At the present time, there is a mongrel race well known in Upper Assam under the name of Doanniyás, sprung from the intercourse between the Singphos and their female slaves. When the British took possession of the Province, these raids were suppressed. Captain Neufville, the commandant at Sadiyá, is said to have released 5000 Assamese captives after a single expe-

dition. The Singphos have now entirely abandoned their old habits of lawlessness. They live by agriculture, and have considerable skill in the smelting of iron and in the weaving of cotton into coloured plaid checks. According to the Census Report of 1872, they only number 257 souls in the settled portion of Lakhimpur District.

Singpur (or *Sowasthán Sinhpur*).—One of the Mewás States in Khándesh, Bombay. Estimated pop. (1872), 350. The principal produce is timber. There are no manufactures.

Singrauli.—Tract of land in Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a depressed alluvial basin, below the level of the surrounding country, and composed in parts of a rich black loam, merging at other places into a hard and unproductive clay. A portion of the tract lies within the dominions of the Rájá of Rewah.

Sinháchalam (*Sinha*, 'a lion').—Temple in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° 46′ N., and long. 83° 11′ 8″ E., on a hill (800 feet above sea level) 6 miles north-west of Vizagapatam town. The shrine, which is most picturesquely situated in a wooded glen, containing springs and beautiful cascades, is dedicated to the Lion incarnation of Vishnu, and is held in great veneration. It is believed to have been built by the Gajapati kings of Orissa, about 600 years ago; and among other handsome blackstone carvings, it bears an inscription dated 1526, recording the visit of the hero Krishna Ráyá. About 200 years ago, it was endowed by the Púsapátis. It is now in the charge of the Mahárájá of Vizianágaram, who has a house and beautiful rose-garden here, the latter laid out by his ancestor Sítárám Ráo. The Mahárájá has also built and endowed a *choultry* (native inn) for pilgrims.

Sinhgarh (*Sinhgad*).—Hill fort in the Haveli Subdivision of Poona (Puná) District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 21′ 51″ N., and long. 73° 47′ 51″ E. Rising with a bold rocky outline from the plain, 12 miles south by west of Poona, Sinhgarh is the most marked object in the neighbourhood of that city, and during the hot season offers to Europeans a welcome change from the temperature of the plains. The fort was taken by storm by a British force in March 1818.

Sinjhauli Sháhzádpur.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 24′ N., and long. 82° 35′ E., on a picturesque spot on the high bank of the Tons, opposite Akbarpur, 36 miles from Faizábád town, on the road to Jaunpur. Founded by Sujhawal, a Bhar chief, and called after him Sujhawalgarh, which has since been altered to Sinjhauli. A certain Sayyid Táj settled here, and dug a tank; a tomb on an island within this tank bears an inscription dated 1365 A.D., one of the oldest in Oudh. A family of Kshattriya bankers formerly flourished here. Pop. (1869), 5069, of whom 2021 are Sunnis,

84 Shiás, and 2964 Hindus. Four mosques; 4 Hindu temples; 916 houses, of which 24 are of masonry.

Sinnar.—Chief town of the Sinnar Subdivision of Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 50′ 25″ N., and long. 74° 2′ 30″ E., on the Násik and Poona road, 17 miles south-east of the former town. It is a municipal town, with a population (1872) of 10,044 persons, almost entirely agricultural, and a municipal revenue of £150. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary. A large portion of the land around the town is irrigated, and produces rich crops of sugar-cane, plantains, betel-leaves, and rice. Sinnar is said to have been founded by a Gauli Rájá, whose son, Ráo Govind, built the handsome temple outside the town, at a cost of 2 *lákhs* of rupees (say £20,000). The town was at one time the headquarters of the local government under the Mughal Emperor.

Sinronchá.—Town in the Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces.—*See* SIRONCHA.

Siobára.—One of the petty Bhíl States in Khándesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Siohára.—Poor but populous town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 8340. Situated in lat. 29° 12′ N., and long. 78° 38′ E., on the Moradábád and Hardwár road, 28 miles south-east of Bijnaur town.

Siprá (*Sipri*).—River of Central India, rising in Málwá, on the north side of the Vindhyán range, 11 miles east of the small town of Pipalda, in lat. 22° 37′ N., and long. 76° 12′ E. 'It has,' writes Thornton, 'a winding course, generally north-westerly, through a fertile country; and 40 miles from its source receives on its left side the small river Kaund, and, passing subsequently by the towns of Ujjain and Mehidpur, falls into the Chambal, on the right bank, in lat. 23° 54′ N., and long. 75° 29′ E., after a total course of 120 miles. . . . During the rains, the Siprá swells and overflows many places on its banks. In 1821, it rose to such a height as to wash away part of the town of Mehidpur.'

Sirá.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore; having been transferred from Chitaldrug District in 1868. Area, 670 square miles, of which 189 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 71,928, of whom 69,660 are Hindus, 1989 Muhammadans, 28 Jains, and 251 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £11,898, or 2s. 2d. per cultivated acre. The cocoa-nuts are of a specially fine quality.

Sirá.—Municipal town in Túmkúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 44′ 43″ N., and long. 76° 57′ 16″ E., 33 miles north-north-west of Túmkúr town, and 73 miles north-west from Bangalore; headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 4231, of whom 3354 are Hindus, 648 Muhammadans, and 229 Christians. Municipal revenue

(1874-75), £22; rate of taxation, 1d. per head. Formerly the capital of an extensive Muhammadan Province. Its foundation is attributed to Rangappa Náyak, chief of Ratnágirí; but before the fort was completed, it was captured, in 1638, by Randulla Khán, general of the Bijápur King. Shortly afterwards, Sirá was included in the *jágír* granted to the Marhattá Sháhjí, the father of Sivají the Great. In 1687, on the conquest of the Bijápur kingdom by the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, Sirá was made the capital of a new Province south of the Tungabhadra, which nominally included the greater part of the modern State of Mysore. The two best known Nawábs or Governors were Kásim Khán and Diláwar Khán. Under the latter ruler, the town attained its highest prosperity. The number of houses is said to have been 50,000; there are now only 671. An elegant palace, erected by Dilawar Khán, now in ruins, furnished the models for the palaces of Bangalore and Seringapatam. In 1757, Sirá was taken by the Marhattás, but recovered for the Musalmáns by Haidar Alí in 1761. During the great struggle for power in the Karnatic, Sirá suffered severely. On one occasion, Tipú transported 12,000 families to form the population of his new town of Ganjám. The finest buildings now standing are the Jamá Masjíd of hewn stone, and the fort also of stone, with a regular moat and glacis. A large proportion of the inhabitants are Korubars by caste, who manufacture *kamblis* or coarse blankets to the total value of about £500 in the year. The price of each blanket varies from 1s. to £1, 4s. Common sealing-wax is also made, but the weaving of chintz is now an extinct industry.

Siraguppa (*Siruguppa*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras. A badly built, unhealthy town, situated on the Tungabhadra river, in lat. 15° 38′ 50″ N., and long. 76° 56′ 30″ E. Pop. (1871), 5501, living in 1514 houses.

Sirájganj.—Subdivision of Pábná District, Bengal, lying between 24° 0′ 45″ and 24° 45′ N. lat., and between 89° 17′ and 89° 53′ E. long. Area, 1031 square miles; villages, 1492; houses, 100,870; pop. (1872), 656,575, of whom 175,488 were Hindus, 478,278 Muhammadans, 35 Christians, and 2754 of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 49·9 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 637; villages per square mile, 1·45; houses per square mile, 98; persons per village, 440; inmates per house, 6·5. This Subdivision consists of the four police circles of Shahzádpur, Ullápára, Sirájganj, and Ráiganj. In 1869, it contained 4 magisterial and revenue courts, a police force of 133 men, and a village watch of 1018 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £6380.

Sirájganj.—Town in Pábná District, Bengal, and the most important river mart in the Province; situated near the Jamuná or main stream of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 24° 26′ 58″ N., and long. 89° 47′ 5″ E. Pop. (1872), 18,873, of whom 10,333 were males and 8540 females.

Municipal income (1876-77), £573; incidence of taxation, 6¾d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town consists of 12 streets, and is traversed by the Pábná and Chándáikoná roads; it contains only 1 market; there are 4 *gháts* or landing-places, viz. Ferry *ghát* on the Dhánbandi river (which flows through Sirájganj), Kálibári, Rahuabári, and the Jute Company's *ghát* in Máchimpur.

The following description of Sirájganj and its river trade is condensed from the *Report on the River Trade of Bengal for* 1876-77, the facts having been originally supplied by Mr. Nolan, who was for several years Magistrate of the Sirájganj Subdivision:—

The town is said to take its name from a local *zamíndár*, called Siráj Alí, who first opened a *bázár* here in the beginning of the present century. It then stood upon the bank of the Jamuná; but in 1848 an excessive flood of the river washed the entire town away. The traders thereupon retreated some 5 miles backward to the new bank; and when the river, in a fresh caprice, returned to its old channel, they determined to remain where they were, safe from inundation, though at a long distance from their daily place of business. During the rainy season, from June to October, the Jamuná comes down in flood, overflowing the waste of sand between the houses and the *bázár*, and filling the branch stream that passes through the town. For the rest of the year, business is entirely conducted on the permanent bank of the Jamuná, wherever that may happen to be, for the mighty river sweeps away acres of land and alters its navigable channel every year. Hence it is that Sirájganj has been described from the deck of a Brahmaputra steamer as 'a town without houses.' Scarcely a warehouse stands on the river's brink, nor a tree to afford shelter. Large boats and flats lie anchored in mid-stream; fleets of smaller craft take shelter in the natural bends of the river; while the merchants and brokers move to and fro in light *dinghis*, to conduct their transactions on the spot. The bright head-dresses of the Márwárís afford a lively contrast to the white robes of the Bengális and the riding costumes and pith hats of the Europeans. On the shore, crowds of coolies are busy landing the open 'hanks' of jute, packing them into 'drums,' and again reshipping them for Calcutta. All this is done under the blaze of a tropical sun; and all those engaged have to traverse twice daily the blinding waste of 5 miles of sand that intervenes between their houses and the river.

In 1877, there were 6 European firms, or branches of firms, established at Sirájganj; and also an agency of the Bank of Bengal, which imports specie every year to the amount of about £500,000, to liquidate the favourable balance of exchange. The principal native merchants are Márwárís, locally known as Káyas, who are immigrants from Rájputána, and mostly profess the Jain religion. Their headquarters in Bengal is in Murshidábád District, but their operations extend as far as

the eastern corner of Assam. Like their brethren in the Deccan, they are a clannish race, who undertake considerable speculations in reliance upon the good faith of their numerous and distant correspondents. They are described as honest, frugal, and diligent, but quite uneducated. The Bengálí traders chiefly belong to the caste of Sháhás. They are very intelligent, but lack enterprise and confidence in one another.

The business of Sirájganj is mainly that of a changing station. The agricultural produce of all the country round is brought in in small boats, either by the cultivators themselves or by petty dealers, and here transferred to the wholesale merchants, for shipment to Calcutta in steamers or large cargo boats. In return, piece-goods, salt, hardware, and all sorts of miscellaneous articles are received from Calcutta for distribution. In 1876-77, the aggregate value of the registered trade of Sirájganj, including both exports and imports, amounted to more than 3¼ millions sterling; but in this total a great deal is counted twice over. The following are the principal items, in one table or the other:—Jute, £606,000; European piece-goods, £264,000; salt, £263,000; oil-seeds, £171,000; oil, £97,000; rice and other grain, £83,000; sugar, £83,000; tobacco, £74,000; gunny bags, £69,000. The larger half of this trade is conducted direct with Calcutta, to which the exports in 1876-77 were valued at £831,000. Next in importance comes the trade of the surrounding country, and then the supply of rice and general stores to the coolies on the Assam tea-gardens. The relative amount of business done with the neighbouring Districts is shown by the following figures:—Imports from Rangpur, 830,000 *maunds* of jute, 62,000 *maunds* of tobacco, and 28,000 *maunds* of oil-seeds; exports to Rangpur, 167,000 *maunds* of salt and £18,000 of piece-goods: imports from Maimansinh, 294,000 *maunds* of jute and 140,000 *maunds* of mustard seed; exports to Maimansinh, 71,000 *maunds* of salt and £43,000 of piece-goods: imports from Kuch Behar, 160,000 *maunds* of jute and 28,000 *maunds* of tobacco; exports to Kuch Behar, 35,000 *maunds* of salt: imports from Jalpáigurí, 44,000 *maunds* of jute and 40,000 *maunds* of tobacco; imports from Bogra, 209,000 *maunds* of jute; imports from Goálpárá in Assam, 98,000 *maunds* of jute and 166,000 *maunds* of mustard seed.

The export jute trade is conducted entirely with Calcutta, and fluctuates according to the demand in that market. The largest figures were reached in 1872-73, when the local estimate made from the books of the traders was 3,500,000 *maunds*. In 1876-77, the registered total was 2,021,168 *maunds*, valued at £606,330; and in 1877-78, 2,156,307 *maunds*, being in each year the largest figure for any mart in the interior of Bengal. There are three means of communication with Calcutta, which compete actively with one another—by country boat, by steamer to Goálanda and thence by Eastern Bengal Railway, and

by steamer all the way. The two latter modes carry together somewhat more than half the total, and it does not appear that the relative proportions have varied much in recent years. In 1876-77, 993,654 *maunds* went by boat, 567,673 by rail, and 450,841 by steamer. The time taken by the railway is only two days, as compared with eight or nine days by steamer, and somewhat less than thirty days by boat. Freights, of course, vary; but the railway and the steamers always maintain the same rate with one another. The freight by boat ranges from £1, 19s. to £3, 10s. per 1000 *maunds*, averaging about 6d. per *maund;* that by both rail and steamer ranges from 7½d. to 1s. 4½d. per *maund*, averaging about 10½d. But, as is usual in India, these figures are only nominal, and several reductions require to be made before an exact comparison can be instituted. The boats ship by a local *maund* of 84·10 lbs., and it has become customary to load a 1000-*maund* boat with 1100 *maunds*, or an excess of 10 per cent. The railway uses a *maund* of exactly 80 lbs., and the steamers one of 82$\frac{2}{7}$ lbs. Altogether, making every allowance (inclusive of insurance at the rate of 2½ per cent. on boat cargoes, and the difference of discount between bills drawn at thirty and three days), it has been estimated that the total cost of transmitting 1100 *maunds* of jute from Sirájganj to Calcutta would average £37, 11s. 6d. by boat, as compared with £48, 6s. 3d. by rail. Despite this advantage in cheapness, the rail is preferred by the smaller traders, who would not be trusted by the insurance office, and could not themselves bear the risk of shipwreck; and it is largely used by all persons in a rising market, when the object is to get the fibre to Calcutta before a fall.

The Sirájganj Jute Company, which commenced business in 1869, has a large steam factory at the suburb of Máchimpur, giving employment to about 1200 men, women, and children. As compared with the numerous mills on the Húglí, it labours under the disadvantage of having to import its coal, which can only be landed near the factory in the rainy season; but besides supplying the local demand, it annually exports large numbers of gunny bags to Calcutta. They are carried by rail at favourable rates, though the coal always comes up by boat. In 1876-77, the export of gunny bags was 3,161,500 in number, valued at £69,550. In the following year the number was 2,950,625. In 1876-77, the import of coal for the use of the mill was 112,600 *maunds*, valued at £5630.

The municipal committee have twice taken a boat census of Sirájganj. On 31st August 1873, the number of boats found was 1436, laden with 162,000 *maunds* of goods, of which nearly three-fifths was jute. On 4th September 1874, 1185 boats were counted, with cargoes aggregating 195,000 *maunds*. Sirájganj is also a registration station, at which 49,644 boats were counted in the year 1876-77, passing up or down stream

Sirakot.—Ruined fort and temple in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in 29° 49′ N. lat., and 80° 17′ E. long., 9 miles north-west of the confluence of the Gori and Eastern Káli rivers. Elevation above sea level, 6924 feet. Crowns a rocky ridge, with two of its sides scarped to a sheer depth of 2000 feet, and having its front terminated by a chasm 700 feet in depth. The narrow path from Almorá to Nepál winds round one of its flanks. The temple stands upon a conical rock, rising nearly perpendicularly from the ridge covered by the crumbling fortifications. During the Gúrkha invasion in the early part of the century, the garrison was cut off from their water supply, upon which they surrendered, and the fort has ever since remained in a ruinous condition.

Siralkoppa.—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 20′ 50″ N., long. 75° 19′ 53″ E.; pop. (1871), 1661. Important mercantile centre, where the jaggery prepared from sugar-cane in the surrounding country is collected for despatch to the neighbouring Districts of Bombay and Madras. Piece-goods and *kamblis* are received in exchange. Government distillery. Weekly fair held on Sundays is attended by 1700 persons.

Sirasgáon.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar. Lat. 21° 20′ N., long. 77° 45′ E.; pop. (1867), 5599. The town lands pay a revenue of £1481, being the richest community in the District. Police outpost. Small weekly market.

Sirdhána.—Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SARDHANA.

Sirgujá.—Native State in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal.—*See* SARGUJA.

Sirhan.—River in Hazára District, Punjab; a tributary of the Indus. Rises at the head of the Bhogarmang glen, in lat. 34° 46′ N., long. 73° 19′ E., drains the Pakhli valley and the greater part of Tanáwal, and falls into the Indus at Tárbela (lat. 34° 5′ N., long. 72° 44′ E.), after a length of about 80 miles. Great variety of scenery in different parts of its course, from the wild mountain gorges of the upper glens to the broad expanse of irrigated rice-fields in the Pakhli vale, and the low but rugged hills of Tanáwal. Abounds in fish, especially the *mahsir*. The Pakhli Swáthis call the Sirhan their 'female slave,' as it irrigates their fields, grinds their corn, husks their rice, and cleans their cotton. Numerous mills line the bank. Nowhere navigable; fordable almost everywhere, except during floods.

Sirhind.—Tract in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab; consisting of the north-eastern portion of the plain which intervenes between the Jumna and the Sutlej rivers. It includes the British Districts of UMBALLA (Ambála), LUDHIANA, and FIROZPUR, together with the Native States of PATIALA, JIND, and NABHA, each of which see separately. Sirhind has now no existence as an administrative

division of territory; but in the historical sense, it includes all that portion of the cis-Sutlej tract which lies between the Simla Hills on the north-east, the Jumna valley Districts (Karnál and Rohtak) on the east, Hariána (Sírsa and Hissár) on the south, and the Sutlej on the north-west; or more roughly speaking, it embraces the level plain between the Himálayas and the desert of Bíkaner, the Sutlej and the Jumna. This tract comprises the whole watershed of the now deserted stream which once formed the great SARASWATI (Sarsutí) river; and the projected Sirhind Canal will doubtless once more spread fertility over its somewhat desolate expanse. (For further particulars, see CIS-SUTLEJ STATES.)

Sirhind Canal.—An important irrigation work, now in process of construction, in Umballa (Ambála) and Ludhiána Districts, and Patiála and Nábha States, Punjab. The canal will draw its supply from the Sutlej near Rupar, and run through Ludhiána and Firozpur Districts. Other branches in connection will traverse Patiála and Nábha, terminating in Sírsa and Karnál Districts. It is probable that the canal will not be fully completed for several years. Up to the close of the official year 1876-77, the total expenditure on capital account had been £1,394,875, of which £521,080 had been contributed by the Native States interested.

Sírmúr. — One of the sub-Himálayan or Hill States, under the Government of the Punjab, frequently called NAHAN, from the name of the chief town. Sírmúr is bounded on the north by the Hill States of Balsan and Jubal; on the east by the British District of the Dehra Dún, from which it is separated by the rivers Tons and Jumna; on the south-west by Umballa (Ambála) District, and some detached portions of the Native States of Kalsia; and on the north-west by the Native States of Patiála and Keunthál. It lies between lat. 30° 24′ and 31° N., and between long. 77° 5′ and 77° 50′ E.; estimated area, 1000 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 90,000 souls.

Physical Aspects.—Except a very small tract about Náhan, on the south-western extremity, where a few streams rise and flow south-westward to the Saraswatí (Sarsutí) and Ghaggar rivers, the whole of Sírmúr lies in the basin of the Jumna, which receives from this quarter the Giri and its feeders, the Jalál and the Palúr. The river Tons, the great western arm of the stream called lower down the Jumna, flows along the eastern boundary of Sírmúr, and on its right bank receives from it two small streams, the Minus and the Nairai. The surface of the State generally declines in elevation from north to south; the height of the trigonometrical station on the Chor Mountain on the northern frontier being 11,982 feet, and that of the confluence of the Giri and Jumna on the southern frontier being about 1500 feet above sea level. From that confluence the valley of the Khiárda Dún stretches westward, form-

ing the southern part of Sírmúr, and extending about 25 miles in length from east to west, and from 13 to 6 in breadth, terminating to the west at the eastern base of the Náhan ridge. Its surface rises gradually to the westward from the Jumna to the Ghatusan Pass, a distance of 14 miles. From Ghatusan, having an elevation of 2500 feet above the sea, the country falls both eastward, as already stated, and westward, the streams in the former direction flowing to the Jumna, and those in the latter to the Markanda and other rivers holding their course to the Saraswatí and Ghaggar. The Khiárda Dún is bounded on the south by the Siwálik range. These hills are of recent formation, and abound in fossil remains of large vertebrate animals. On the north, the Dún is bounded by the Sub-Himálayas. The Rájá Ban, or royal forest, situated in the north-eastern angle of the Dún, yields valuable *sál* timber. Elephants are occasionally trapped in pits. The pasturage of the Dún is exceedingly rich. The Sain ridge rises to the north-west of the range bounding the Khiárda Dún; on the north, it stretches along the right bank of the river Giri, and has a massive contour, rising at its south-eastern extremity into the summit of Thandu Bhawání (5700 feet); at its north-western, into that of Sarsu Debi (6299 feet). The formation is limestone, which extends generally to the bed of the Giri, where slate-rock commences. Beyond the Giri, and at the northern extremity of Sírmúr, is the remarkable peak of Chor, connected by a transverse ridge with the outer Himálaya, and itself a central point from which subordinate ranges ramify in every direction. The summit is composed of vast tabular masses of granite, which, though compact, is readily decomposed by the weather. Sírmur, though its rocks consist of formations usually metalliferous, at present yields little mineral wealth. At Kalsi, a copper-mine was formerly worked, but has now been abandoned. A lead-mine has also been opened. Iron-ore is abundant, and the Rájá established a foundry some years ago, and has made every endeavour to develop the natural resources of the State. Owing, however, to the difficulties of carriage from the mines, the enterprise has not hitherto proved a financial success. The extensive slate strata are in some places quarried to supply roofing. So dense are the forests that the sportsman finds difficulty in making his way through them in search of wild elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, and hyænas, with which they abound. Wild pea-fowl are in many places very numerous, being unmolested in consequence of the superstitious regard of the natives.

History.—Sírmúr, which means 'a crowned head,' was the place of residence of the Rájás who ruled over the State before the present dynasty entered the country. It is said that the last Rájá of the ancient line was swept away by a flood; and that Agar Sain Ráwal, of the ruling family of Jáisalmír, from whom the present chief is descended, being

at that time in the neighbourhood on a pilgrimage to the Ganges, took possession of the vacant throne. This occurred in 1095 A.D. The descendants of Agar Sain Ráwal have retained the chiefship ever since. In 1803, the country was brought into subjection by the Gúrkhas, who in turn were expelled in 1815 by the British under Sir David Ochterlony. The Rájput Rájá was reinstated in his ancient possessions, with the exception of the fort and *parganá* of Múri, given to the Musalmán *sardár* of that place for good service against the enemy; the Khiárda Dún, which was subsequently, in 1833, restored; a tract of hill country to the north of the river Giri made over to the Rájá of Keunthal; and the *parganás* of Jaunsar and Bawar in the Dehra Dún, annexed to the British dominions. The present Rájá, Shamsher Prakás, K.C.S.I., was born about 1843. He receives a salute of 7 guns, and maintains a small force of drilled sepoys, numbering 100 cavalry, 530 infantry, with 10 field guns, and 20 artillerymen. The relations of the chief with the British Government are defined in a *sanad*, dated 21st September 1815, under which he is required to consult the Superintendent of the Hill States in all matters connected with the management of the State, and to furnish a contingent to the British forces when called on. Sentences of death require the confirmation of the Superintendent and the Commissioner of Umballa (Ambála), but all other punishments are awarded by the Rájá on his own authority.

Population, etc.—The population of Sírmúr was estimated in 1875 at 90,000, and the gross revenue at £21,000. No tribute is paid. The principal products are opium and several kinds of grain. The houses are generally three storeys high; built of stone, boarded with timber, of which there is great abundance, as fine forests of fir, oak, rhododendron, horse-chestnut, and other trees overspread the mountains. The roofs are generally of slate, but sometimes of shingle. The family inhabits the upper storey, which is surrounded by an enclosed balcony projecting 6 or 8 feet beyond the wall. The villages, usually situated on the slopes or tops of hills, have a picturesque and pleasing effect in the landscape. The natives of Sírmúr are of the Aryan type, and obviously of a race allied to the Hindus of the plains; towards the north-east, there is an admixture of the Mongolian stock. Goitre is very prevalent amongst all classes. The dress of the middle classes consists of a simple tunic or frock reaching down to the knees, trousers, and a scarf usually worn across the shoulders, but when the sun is hot, thrown over the head; the lower orders content themselves with a blanket girt round the waist; the higher ranks dress after the fashion of Hindustán, and wear the Síkh turban. Polyandry is common, if not universal, several brothers often cohabiting with the same woman. The religion prevailing in Sírmúr is mainly Bráhmanism; to which is added the superstitious adoration and dread of innumerable local

divinities, with which the imagination of the natives has peopled every hill, and valley, and grove. The lives of kine are sacred. The people are divided into castes as in the plains, and Bráhmans abound. The most important tribe in the hills is named Kanet, the members of which form about 60 per cent. of the whole population of the State. Kanets are Hindus, and probably of true Aryan descent. They are popularly supposed to be degenerate Rájputs, who have fallen from their high estate in consequence of the custom which prevails amongst them of purchasing their wives and allowing the marriage of widows. The language is a dialect of Hindí.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sírmúr varies with the elevation—from that of the Chor, where the surface of the ground is under snow the greater part of the year, to the stifling malaria of the low-lying Khiárda Dún. In shape, the Khiárda Dún resembles a deep narrow trench shut in by high walls on every side, except towards the east, where it opens to the Jumna; it has a deep alluvial swampy soil, teeming with rank vegetation; and its climate consequently is peculiarly hot and oppressive, and the air so charged with noxious vapours as to be generally fatal to human life. The greater part of the Dún is mere desert or jungle, untrodden by man, except by a few woodcutters, or by the collectors of gum catechu, which is yielded in great abundance by the Mimosa.

Sirohi.—A Native State in the Rájputána Agency under the Government of India, lying between lat. 24° 22′ and 25° 16′ N., and between long. 72° 22′ and 73° 18′ E. Estimated area, 3000 square miles; estimated population (1875), 153,000. Sirohi is bounded on the north by Márwár or Jodhpur, on the east by Mewár or Udáipur, on the south by Pálanpur and the Mahi Kántha States of Edar and Danta, and on the west by Jodhpur.

Physical Aspects.—The country is much intersected and broken up by hills and rocky ranges. The main feature is Mount ABU, the highest peak of which rises 5653 feet above the sea; it is situated at the extremity of the ARAVALLI MOUNTAIN chain, being partially separated from the main range by a narrow valley. That range, running from south-west to north-east, divides the State into two not very unequal portions. The western half is comparatively open and level, and more populous and better cultivated than the other. Both portions, being situated at the foot of the hill range, are intersected by numerous water-courses or *nálás*, which become torrents of greater or less volume in the rainy season, but are dry during the remainder of the year. From the line of water-parting the streams discharge into the rivers Loni and Banás. The lower slopes of the Aravalli range in Sirohi are clothed with dense forest, and the country generally is dotted with low rocky hills, which, as a rule, are thickly covered with jungle, consisting chiefly

of the *dhao* tree (Anogeissus pendula) mixed with *khayer* (Acacia catechu), *bábul* (Acacia arabica), *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba), and Euphorbia. The only river of any importance is the Western Banás. Within the limits of the State this river is not perennial; it usually ceases to flow as the hot season commences, and only heavy pools are then to be found. It is subject, during the rains, to occasional floods, but these rapidly subside, leaving the stream fordable and the water clear and good. The Banás, rising in the Aravalli Hills, flows through the State into Guzerat, and after passing the cantonment of Dísa, is finally lost in the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). There are remains of many fine artificial lakes in Sirohi, but no lakes or *jhíls* at present exist, with the exception of the Nakhi Taláo on Mount Abu. The nature of the subsoil of Sirohi appears, as a rule, to be unsuited to the artificial storage of water, for in the village tanks the water generally subsides very rapidly after the end of the rainy season. The depth at which water is found below the surface varies a good deal in different parts of the State. Thus, in the north-east, the wells are from 90 to 100 feet deep, and the water is generally brackish. In the north-west, water is more easily found, at from 70 to 90 feet; while in the eastern Districts, water of good quality is found at depths varying from 15 to 60 feet, the depth required to be sunk decreasing towards the south. In the western Districts, the depth of the wells is generally 60 to 70 feet; and at Sirohi town, and in its neighbourhood, water is often scarce and of inferior quality. The geological formation of the Aravalli range is granite overlying blue slate. The valleys exhibit variegated quartz and schistose slate. Rocks of gneiss and syenite appear at intervals. At the south-east corner of Sirohi, the Aravalli range takes a sweep to the south-west, enclosing a hilly tract called the *bhakar*. In this tract, the rocks are primitive and metamorphic, with schists and limestone. Mica is found in large quantities. Near the village of Jariwáo, on the south-eastern frontier of the State, are the marble quarries of that name, from which the celebrated Jain temples of Abu are said to have been built. The granite of Abu is used to a considerable extent for building, and the blue slate which underlies the granite is well adapted for paving and other purposes. It is said that a copper-mine was formerly worked in the hilly range above the town of Sirohi.

Although a considerable portion of Sirohi is covered with tree and bush jungle, the forests, strictly speaking, may be considered as confined to the slopes of Abu and the belt of forest round its base. In the *bhakar*, there are here and there hills and valleys well wooded with valuable timber, such as the *tímru* (ebony), *dhaman siris*, *huldru*, the large *dhao*, and others. On the slopes of Abu a great variety of trees and shrubs are found. The most common are the bamboo, mango, *siris*, *dhao* of various kinds, *jámun*, *kachnar*, *etc.* Tigers are

numerous, and destroy a great number of cattle. Bears and leopards are common. Both *sámbhar* and *chítal* deer were also numerous, till the great famine of 1868-69, during which numbers of them either died, or were killed by the Bhíls for food. Antelopes are scarce, but *chikara* and the four-horned deer are to be found in parts of the country. Field rats are abundant in the sandy portions of the State. Hares are very common. The grey partridge abounds, the painted and black partridge are rare. Quails of several kinds and sand grouse are everywhere met with. Florican visit the country for a short time during the rains. Jungle and spur fowl are found in the hilly parts of the State. The fish are few and almost entirely confined to the Banás river, and are chiefly the *rohu*, *murrel*, *pari*, and *chilwa*.

History.—The present ruling family of Sirohi are Deora Rájputs, a branch of the great Chauhán clan, and are said to be immediately descended from Deo Ráj, a descendant of Prithwi Ráj, the Chauhán King of Delhi. The earliest known inhabitants of Sirohi were the Bhíls. The first Rájputs to settle in the country were the Gehlots. They were soon followed by the Pramara Rájputs, who appear to have been a powerful race, and to have had their capital at Chandrawati. The ruins of this place prove it to have been at one time a large and flourishing city. The Pramaras were succeeded by the Chauhán Rájputs, who seem to have first established themselves in the country about 1152 A.D., but who only dispossessed the Pramaras after a long series of years and much fighting. The Pramaras are said to have taken up their last refuge on Mount Abu, where remains of extensive fortifications are still to be seen. Being unable to drive them from their stronghold, the Deora Chauháns had recourse to stratagem. They sent a proposal that the Pramaras should bring twelve of their daughters to be married into the Chauhán tribe, and thus establish a friendship. The proposal being accepted, the story runs that the twelve girls were accompanied to Bhadeli, a village near the southern border of Sirohi, by nearly all the Pramaras. The Chauháns then fell upon them, massacred the majority, and pursuing the survivors back to Abu, gained possession of that place. It is said that the descendants of Pramaras now inhabit Abu, and, in memory of this act of treachery, never allow their daughters to go down to the plains to be married. During the reign of Sains Mall (about 1425 A.D.), the Rááná Kambají of Chittor obtained permission to take refuge at Achilgarh on Mount Abu, when flying from the Mughal Emperor. On the retreat of the imperial army, the son of Sains Mall sent word to the Ráná to return to his own country; but the latter, having found what a strong position Abu was, refused to leave, and had eventually to be driven out by force. In consequence of this, no other Rájá was ever allowed to go up to Abu; and this custom

remained in force till 1836, when, through the intervention of Colonel Spiers (at that time in political charge at Sirohi), Maháráná Jawán Sinh of Udáipur was permitted to proceed to Abu on a pilgrimage to the Abu temples. Since then the prohibition has been withdrawn, and many chiefs of Rájputána have visited Abu. During the early years of the present century, the State of Sirohi suffered much from wars with Jodhpur, and the constant marauding of the wild Miná tribes. The State became too weak to protect its subjects; hence many of the Thákurs in the south threw off their allegiance, and placed themselves under the protection of Pálanpur; and the Sirohi State was nigh being dismembered. Under these circumstances, in 1817, Ráo Sheo Sinh, then Regent, sought the protection of the British Government. Captain Tod was at that time the Political Agent in Western Rájputána; and after making close inquiry into the history and relations of the two States, he disallowed the pretensions of Jodhpur to suzerainty over Sirohi. In 1823, a treaty was finally concluded between the British Government and the Sirohi State. Many of the Thákurs were in rebellion, supported by the wild Minás of the hills; but they were eventually reduced to submission. Ráo Sheo Sinh did good service during the Mutiny of 1857, in consideration of which he received a remission of half his tribute, which is now fixed at £688. The Ráo of Sirohi in 1845 made over to the British Government some lands on Mount Abu, for the establishment of a sanatorium. The present Ráo is named Kesari Sinh; he is entitled to a salute of 15 guns, and holds a *sanad* giving rights of adoption.

Population.—The population of Sirohi is estimated by the Darbár to number 153,000, of whom 133,000, or about 86 per cent., are Hindus; 1500, or nearly 1 per cent., Muhammadans; and 18,500, or 12 per cent., Jains. There are a considerable number of Bráhmans and religious mendicants in the State. The Baniyas and Mahájans form a very numerous class; they are mostly Oswals and Porewals, followers of the Jain religion. The Rájputs are divided into twelve different clans, or septs of clans, in Sirohi. They are the dominant race, although not numerically the largest class. The greater portion are Deora Chauháns; next in order come the Sesodia and Rahtor clans, who are about equal in number. Rájputs, who are not *jágírdárs* or the immediate relatives of *jágírdárs*, gain their living as State servants, soldiers, and cultivators; they belong to the *diwali band*, or protectors of the villages, and cultivate free of land tax. Kalbis, Rabaris, and Dhers are also numerous. Aboriginal tribes and tribes of the half-blood,—Bhíls, Grassias, and Minás,—taken together, form a considerable section of the population. The Grassias are principally confined to the *bhakar* or hilly tract in the south-east corner of Sirohi. They were formerly great plunderers, but have now settled down to agriculture. They are said to be the descend-

ants of Rájputs, married to Bhíl women. Minás and Bhíls have always been troublesome races, with a hereditary taste for plundering. Speaking generally, the Minás may be said to occupy the north, and the Bhíls the western part of Sirohi. There are some Kolis who are believed to have immigrated from Guzerat. They have now settled down as cultivators, and are principally found in the eastern and southern Districts. The Musalmáns mostly consist of *tahsíldárs* and sepoys, and a few colonies of Cutch (Kachchh) Bohras at Madar and Sirohi. The language of Sirohi is a patois of Márwári and Guzeráti.

Agriculture, etc.—The principal spring crops (*rabí*) are wheat, barley, gram, and mustard (Sinapis dichotoma), from which a kind of oil is prepared, much used by the people. Wheat and barley are the staple crops; on these being reaped, many of the fields are at once ploughed up and sown with two kinds of small grain called *karáng* and *chaina*, which come to maturity very quickly, and are cut before the rains set in. Manure is used every second or third year; but no rotation of crops is practised, the same land being sown with wheat or barley year after year. The chief rain-crops (*kharíf*) are Indian corn, *bájra*, *mung*, *moth*, *arad*, *kulath*, and *gúar*. Cotton and *ambari* or *san* (a kind of hemp) are grown in small quantities for local consumption. *Til*, *kuri basthi*, *kudra*, *mal*, and *sainwalai* are only grown in *walar* cultivation, *i.e.* by cutting down and burning the jungle on the hillsides, and sowing the seed in the ashes. This mode of cultivation is very popular with the Grassias, Bhíls, and Minás, and has proved most destructive to the Aravalli forests. There is so much uncultivated land in the State that the grazing grounds are very extensive.

The agricultural tenures in Sirohi correspond with those generally prevailing throughout Rájputána. The ruler is the actual and sole owner of the land conquered by his ancestors. Those that came with him were granted portions of the conquered territory, on certain conditions of fealty and military service, and became his *umras* or nobles; but the ruler still retained the ownership or *bhúm* of the land. To this there are of course exceptions; and the Grassias, the original inhabitants of the *bhakar*, still retain their *bhúm* rights. The cultivators generally are hereditary tenants, and cannot be ejected so long as they pay the revenue regularly; in fact, in such a sparsely populated country as Sirohi, the cultivator is too valuable to be parted with. There is a large class in Sirohi called the *diwali band*, consisting of Rájputs, Bhíls, Minás, and Kolis, who cultivate land rent-free. The safety of the village is in their hands, and they are bound to protect it. Bráhmans, Charans, and Bhats also cultivate their land free. In all the *jágír* estates, the Rájá receives a portion of the land revenue and local taxes. The rates of assessment vary in different Districts; but

generally in the principal estates Rájputs pay three-eighths of the produce, and in others one-half.

Education, Communications, etc.—Education is but little sought after. There are vernacular schools at the three principal towns, Sirohi, Rohera, and Madar. In many of the villages, boys of the Baniya class are taught to write and keep accounts by the village *jatti*. A dispensary is supported by the State at Sirohi. There are post offices at Erinpura, Sirohi, Anadra, and Abu. Abu has also a telegraph office. The main road through the State is that from Ajmere, through Márwár, Sirohi, Pálanpur, and the Gáekwár's territory, to Ahmedábád. This road enters Sirohi at Erinpura; and passing through the capital and along the western side of Abu, leaves the State again about 2 miles south of Madar, which is about 26 miles from the cantonment of Dísa. The Western Rájputána Railway, constructed on the metre gauge, between Ajmere and Pálanpur, which runs through the length of this State, passes just east of Mount Abu, and was opened in December 1880. There is a jail at Sirohi. Criminal suits are tried by the minister at the capital, and by *tahsíldárs* at the headquarters of Districts. There are no other courts in Sirohi; all civil suits are settled by *panchdyats*, or village assemblies. The military force of the State consists of 2 guns, 74 cavalry, and 260 foot-soldiers.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sirohi is, on the whole, dry and healthy; and there is a general freedom from epidemic diseases, which is doubtless in a measure due to the sparseness of the population. The heat is never so intense as in the North-Western Provinces or the Punjab; but on the other hand, the cold season is of much shorter duration, and less bracing. In the southern and eastern Districts, there is usually a fair amount of rain; but over the rest of the State, the rainfall is frequently scant. This is chiefly due to Mount Abu and the Aravalli Hills attracting the clouds driven inland by the south-west monsoon; thus at Abu the average annual rainfall is about 64 inches, while at Erinpura, less than 50 miles distant in a northerly direction, the average fall is only between 12 and 15 inches. The prevailing wind is south-westerly. The principal diseases are malarious fever and ague, complicated with enlargement of the spleen. Dysentery often occurs at the close of the rains, and during the early part of the cold season, especially in the jungle tracts round the base of Abu.

Sirohi.—Capital of the Native State of the same name, Rájputána; situated in lat. 24° 53′ 12″ N., and long. 72° 54′ 28″ E.

Sirol.—Western suburb of Benares City.—*See* SIKROL.

Sironchá (*Sinroncha*).—Administrative headquarters of the Upper Godávari District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 18° 51′ N., and long. 80° 1′ E., on the left bank of the Pranhítá river, 2 miles above its confluence with the Godávari, and 120 miles south-south-east

of Chánda. Pop. (1872), 1145. The public buildings and European officers' houses stand on a ridge formerly covered with dense jungle, which slopes gradually northwards down to the village. The summit commands a fine view of the Pranhítá, where it winds round a high bluff of sandstone, crowned by a ruined fort, built 160 years ago by direction of Wáli Haidar, a holy man, whose tomb within is held sacred. Sironchá has no manufactures, and little trade, except in articles of local consumption. The town contains English and Telugu schools. The soil is sandy, and the drainage good.

Sironj.—Town in Bhopál, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 6′ 23″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 30″ E., 78 miles north-west of Ságar (Saugor), and 140 north-east of Ujjain. Sironj is built at the foot of a pass connecting Málwá with the tableland to the north. It was once a large town, famed for its muslins and chintzes, but is now much decayed. One fine *bázár* still remains, and there are many mosques. Good water is abundant. 'Sironj, with the appertaining *parganá*,' writes Thornton, 'was in 1798 granted to Amír Khán by Jaswant Ráo Holkar; in 1809, the threatening attitude assumed towards Nágpur by Amír Khán led to the advance upon Sironj of a British force under Colonel Close; subsequently, in 1817, this town and District, with other territories, were guaranteed by the British Government to the Amír.'

Sírpur.—Chief town of a *parganá* of the same name in Basim District, Berar. Lat. 20° 10′ 30″ N., long. 77° 1′ E.; pop. (1867), 3555. Here is the shrine of Antariksh Párasnáth, one of the most sacred resorts of the Jains. The tradition is, that Yelluk, a Rájá of Ellichpur, found the idol on the banks of a river, and his prayers for permission to transport it to his own city were granted on condition of his not looking back. At Sírpur, however, his faith became weak, and he looked back. The idol instantly became immovable, and it thus remained suspended in mid-air for many years. Here still exists a small but ancient Jain temple or shrine, having a covered roof with pendants richly carved. Sírpur has a school, and is a police station.

Sírsa.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 13′ and 30° 40′ N. lat., and between 73° 57′ and 75° 23′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 3121 square miles; population in 1868, 210,795 souls. Sírsa is a District of the Hissár Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the District of Firozpur and the Native State of Patiála, on the west by the river Sutlej (Satlaj), on the south-west by the Native States of Baháwalpur and Bíkaner (Bickaneer), and on the east by the District of Hissár. The administrative headquarters are at the town of SIRSA.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sírsa is intermediate, both in geographical position and in physical features, between the barren

deserts of Bíkaner and the sandy but cultivated plains of the cis-Sutlej States. It forms for the most part a bare and treeless plateau, stretching from the valley of the little river Ghaggar on the east to the main stream of the Sutlej on its western border. Near the village tanks, a few straggling bushes may be seen, but, as a rule, the monotony of the view is rarely broken by any larger vegetation. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Sutlej, however, is a fertile alluvial tract (*khádar*), intersected by numerous branches of the river, and flooded by their overflow during the rainy season. The surrounding tracts, rising by an abrupt bank from this favoured region, are irrigated for the autumn crops by means of temporary wells. Eastward of the *khádar* lies the sandy central tableland, which is chiefly employed for purposes of pasturage. Formerly the District was covered by an excellent grazing grass, known as *dháman;* but this is now rapidly disappearing with the increase of cultivation and consequent necessity for closer grazing, as the cattle eat down the heads before they have time to seed. Tradition asserts that the country was once watered by streams from the Umballa (Ambála) Hills, whose dry channels may still be seen; and the discovery of buried wells and Persian wheels embedded in the sand bears out the local belief. It is supposed that the water has been diverted by ill-constructed irrigation dams, which checked its course through the dead level of the Karnál and Patiála plains; while the deposit of silt thus caused has prevented it from pushing its way in future across the barriers, stopping its natural channels. East of this central plateau lies the valley of the Ghaggar, a formidable torrent in the rainy months, but so entirely dependent on the rainfall of the lower Himálayas that it is usually dry from October to July. During the cold season, its deserted bed is occupied by rich crops of rice and wheat. The Ghaggar expands into three considerable *jhíls* or marshy lakes, the largest of which is 5 miles in length by 2 in breadth; but only one of them contains water during the whole year. Southward of the Ghaggar, again, spreads a barren sandy tract, beyond the reach of its fertilizing inundations, and of small agricultural value. Viewed as a whole, the District of Sírsa is one which lay desert and abandoned until the British occupation; and although colonization has since proceeded rapidly, bringing most of the soil into a state of comparative cultivation, it is only in the valley of the Sutlej that rich crops and valuable pasturage are to be found.

History.—As Sírsa formed a part of the Bhattiána territory, its early history is identical with that of HISSAR DISTRICT. The old town, whose ruins lie near the present headquarters station, is said to have been founded thirteen centuries since, and to have been depopulated by the famine of 1726. It makes a few fitful appearances in the Musalmán chronicles, where it is mentioned as a place of some wealth and

importance. But when the District was first conquered by the British in 1803, it was found almost entirely uninhabited. The Bhattis were lords of the soil, but they tilled little or none of the country, and only used it as a site for their scattered forts, from which bands of marauders made occasional raids into the surrounding regions. Sírsa was officially included in the territory conquered from the Marhattás in 1803, but the Bhattis remained practically in undisturbed possession until 1818. Meanwhile, the Síkh Rájás, taking advantage of the British neglect and the waste condition of the soil, began a series of irregular colonizations, which continued uninterrupted till the year 1837. The British Government then asserted its supremacy, and the District was attached to the North-Western Provinces. The stream of immigration was not checked by this resumption, so long as any portion of the land remained unoccupied; and every inducement was offered by the landowners to immigrant cultivators who settled on their demesnes. Additions were made to the territory by other resumptions from encroaching Native States, in 1844, 1847, and 1855. Shortly after the first organization of the District in 1837, a fiscal settlement of the *parganás* then composing it was undertaken, and remained in force until 1852, when a new general settlement was effected. This was interrupted by the Mutiny of 1857, a detailed account of which will be found in the article on HISSAR DISTRICT. After the suppression of the Mutiny, Sírsa became a portion of the Punjab Lieutenant-Governorship; and the settlement was continued and completed in 1862 under orders from that government. Only at the latter date can the colonization be considered as final; but the whole area was then parcelled out into estates, and every acre has now its owner. Since the British occupation, the towns have grown to a considerable size; and the modern station of Sírsa, founded by the Superintendent of Bhattiána in 1837, has now a population of 11,000 persons, with a thriving trade in grain and sugar.

Population.—No accurate statistics exist with reference to the number of inhabitants earlier than the Census of 1868; but in 1862, the Settlement Report estimated the population of Sírsa as 151,877. In 1868, the Census returned the total population at 210,795; showing an increase for the seven years of 58,918 persons, or 38·81 per cent. Taking into account the continuous immigration from the Síkh States, this high rate of increase cannot be far from the truth. In 1868, the above-mentioned population of 210,795 persons was returned as inhabiting 658 villages or townships and 43,131 houses. These results show the following averages, taking the area as it was then calculated, namely 3115 square miles; persons per square mile, 68; villages or townships per square mile, 0·21; persons per village or township, 320·35; houses per square mile, 13·84; persons

per house, 4·88. From these figures it will be seen that the District is still very sparsely populated. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 117,052; females, 93,743; proportion of males, 55·53 per cent. The preponderance of males over females is greatest amongst the Síkhs, and least amongst the 'others' of the religious enumeration. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years — males, 41,129; females, 35,822; total, 76,951, or 36·50 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 75,923; females, 57,921; total, 133,844, or 63·50 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, the Muhammadan element musters strongest, the followers of Islám being returned at 82,120, or 38·96 per cent. of the inhabitants. Next come the Hindus, with 76,965, or 36·51 per cent. The Síkhs number 21,525, or 10·21 per cent.; while the remaining sects, classed together as 'others' in the Census Report, form an aggregate of 30,805 persons, or 14·32 per cent. The ethnical division of the inhabitants shows the Játs as the leading tribe, with a total of 51,476 persons. They are the best cultivators in the District, and are to be found everywhere throughout Sírsa, except in the fertile valley of the Sutlej. In religion they are chiefly Síkhs, and by origin they are colonists from the Síkh States. The Rájputs rank next in numerical order, being returned at 11,074 persons, amongst whom the Bhattis, once the dominant race, are still the leading clan. Like other predatory races, the Bhattis have sunk in the social scale since the British occupation, as their lazy and improvident habits unfit them for an industrial *régime.* Their chief occupation is that of graziers, with which they combine, when practicable, their hereditary practice of cattle-lifting. The mercantile classes are represented by 7819 Baniyás and 4461 Aroras. The Sutlej valley, the richest portion of Sírsa, is held by two Muhammadan tribes, the Wattus and the Kharals, who are apparently of Rájput origin, and who number respectively 6642 and 3499. The Bráhmans are a small body, returned at only 2011 persons in all, scattered amongst the Ját villages, and generally engaged in agriculture. There were 5 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 2000, namely—SIRSA, 11,000; RANIA, 4583; ELLENABAD, 3414; FAZILKA, 3406; and Rori, 2706. The occupation returns are as follows:—Agriculturists, 148,856; non-agriculturists, 61,939. The dialects in common use are Urdu, Panjabí, Bágrí, and Bhatti.

Agriculture.—Scarcely one-eighth of the cultivable area in Sírsa has yet been brought under tillage; but a large portion of the soil is devoted to grazing. The staple product is *bájra*, which occupied 489,076 acres in 1872-73. The other principal crops were—*moth*, 142,448 acres; *joár*, 93,888 acres; and *til*, 45,630 acres. These all belong to the autumn or *kharíf* harvest, which is generally successful; but the spring or *rabí* crops are very precarious, owing to the capriciousness of the rainfall, and they

not infrequently fail altogether. In 1872-73, they occupied the following areas:—Barley, 55,315 acres; gram, 36,941 acres; and wheat, 33,480 acres. Wheat is grown in the Sutlej and Ghaggar valleys, and rice for local consumption is produced in the same neighbourhood. The average out-turn per acre for the various crops is as follows:—Rice, 668 lbs.; cotton, 82 lbs.; wheat, 365 lbs.; inferior food grains, 325 lbs. Irrigation is only slightly practised, and the District is almost entirely dependent on the rainfall. A good season secures a fair supply of coarse grains and abundant pasturage for the cattle; but in a dry year, the whole country becomes an arid and desolate waste. Sírsa was formerly famous for its live-stock, which are still reared in large numbers; but with the extension of cultivation, encroachments have been made upon the pasturage, and the closer grazing thus induced has proved very destructive to the *dháman* grass, from which the breed is supposed to have derived its good qualities. The peasantry are deeply in debt to the village shopkeepers, and the rates of interest are high. The material condition of the people is far from comfortable; some tribes live in huts which are mere sheds of grass and reeds, while even the more prosperous are content with flat-roofed mud cottages. The position of the tenants, however, is favourable, as the original owners of the soil, in their anxiety to secure cultivators from among the immigrant colonists, have granted very easy terms to settlers. Rents are returned as follows, in accordance with the nature of the crop for which the land is suitable:—Sugar, £3 per acre; wheat, £1, 3s. per acre; other grains, 10s. 6d. per acre irrigated, 1s. 3d. per acre unirrigated. Wages are reported to have risen 50 per cent. during the last ten years. In towns they range from 1½ to 2½ annas (2¼d. to 3¾d.) per diem. Agricultural wages are invariably paid in grain. The prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873:—*Bájra*, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 0¼d. per cwt.; barley, 1 *maund* per rupee, or 2s. 8¾d. per cwt.; wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—As Sírsa is entirely dependent for its harvests upon the scanty rainfall, it is peculiarly liable to famine. Even in the most plentiful years, the local food supply is insufficient for home consumption, and grain has to be imported from the east. As the ordinary crop is thus deficient, no reserve can be kept for seasons of scarcity. Sírsa accordingly suffered much during the disastrous seasons of 1868 and 1869. In October 1868, it was necessary to open poorhouses; and during January 1869, relief was afforded to 40,715 persons. The spring crop proved a total loss, and the distress continued throughout the year. Rain fell in September, in time to save the autumn harvest; but it was not till the beginning of 1870 that relief measures could be brought to an end. In January 1869, *bájra* was quoted at 10 *sers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District has little trade, except in agricultural produce, which goes chiefly to Bíkaner (Bickaneer). Wool and mustard seed are exported to Karáchi; while grain, cotton, European piece-goods, and hardware are imported from the east. The town of Sírsa is the main entrepôt for the local trade, and also for the through traffic with Bíkaner. A great cattle fair is held there in August and September, and attended by purchasers from the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces. About 150,000 head of cattle from the District itself and the adjoining Native States are exposed for sale; and the concourse of people is estimated at 50,000. Fázilka, on the Sutlej, is also a mart of rising importance, its position on the river enabling it to establish a direct traffic with the sea-coast, and to supersede Firozpur as an emporium for the commerce of the Sutlej. The only manufacture of any importance is that of *sajji*, an impure carbonate of soda, used in washing and dyeing cloth. It is obtained by burning a plant of the same name, which contains large quantities of alkali. The District has no railways or telegraphs, and the navigation on the Sutlej is confined to the Fázilka traders. The principal road is that from Sírsa to Fázilka, with a branch to Firozpur. The other large towns are also connected by good roads.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with an Assistant and extra-Assistant, besides 3 *tahsíldárs* and their deputies. In 1872-73, the total revenue amounted to £27,227, of which £23,653 was derived from the land tax. The rate per acre of the land revenue is lighter than in any other part of the Punjab. For police purposes, the District is divided into 7 police circles (*thánás*). In 1873, the regular police numbered 306 men of all ranks, besides a municipal force of 66 constables and 5 ferry watchmen. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 381 men, being 1 policeman for every 8·17 square miles of area and for every 553 of the population. The total number of persons brought to trial in 1872 was 1167, or 1 in every 180 inhabitants. The District jail is at Sírsa, and the total number of inmates in 1872 was 692, while the daily average was 270. The cost per prisoner was £3, 19s. 11$\frac{5}{8}$d., and the average earnings of each labouring convict were £1, 6s. 11d. Education is still very backward, as might naturally be expected in a District so recently occupied and so thinly populated. In 1872-73, there were 54 schools in Sírsa, most of them unaided, and the total number of pupils on the rolls was 1273. The amount expended upon education from public funds in the same year was £248. Sírsa is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 8 *parganás*, containing 611 villages, owned by 6064 shareholders. There are two municipalities, at SIRSA and FAZILKA, and a municipal revenue is also raised in the three other largest towns. Their aggregate income amounted in

1871-72 to £2938, being at the rate of 2s. 4⅛d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects. — The climate of Sírsa is extremely dry. The annual rainfall for the six years preceding 1873 was as follows:— 1867-68, 16·2 inches; 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 9·2 inches; 1869-70, 13 inches; 1870-71, 13·3 inches; 1871-72, 11 inches; and 1872-73, 18·2 inches. The principal disease is fever, to which about three-fourths of all the deaths are assigned; but small-pox, cholera, and bowel complaints are also prevalent. The total number of deaths reported in 1872 was 4532, or 21 per thousand of the population; of which 3191 cases, or 15·14 per thousand, were assigned to fever alone. There are 3 charitable dispensaries in the District, the total number of patients relieved at which amounted to 4728 in 1872.

Sírsa.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Sírsa District, Punjab; consisting chiefly of a dry and sandy plain. Pop. (1868), 86,305, or 83·93 per square mile.

Sírsa.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Sirsa District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 11,000, consisting of 6429 Hindus, 3072 Muhammadans, 97 Síkhs, 24 Christians, and 1378 'others.' Situated on the north side of a dry bed of the Ghaggar, in lat. 29° 32′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 7′ E. The modern town, founded in 1837 by Major Thoresby, Superintendent of Bhattiána, occupies a square site within a mud wall 8 feet high, and consists of wide straight streets running at right angles, without any of those narrow winding lanes which usually occur in oriental towns. Major Thoresby desired to create a centre for local trade, with which object he invited traders from Hánsi, Hissár, and the neighbouring towns of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and Patiála. Great success attended his efforts, and the town grew rapidly in population and wealth. The ruins of old Sírsa lie near the south-west corner of the modern station, and still present considerable remains, though much of the material has been used for building the new houses. Tradition ascribes its origin to an eponymic Rájá Saras, who built the town and fort about 1300 years ago. The historian of Firoz Tughlak mentions it under the name of Sarsuti, and it would then appear to have been a place of wealth and importance. Nothing is known of its later history, but its depopulation is attributed to the great famine of 1726. The modern town is an entrepôt for the trade of the wheat-growing countries to the north and east with Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and Márwár. Grain of all kinds from Ludhiána, Umballa (Ambála), and Patiála, and sugar from the neighbourhood of Shamli, form the chief items of export. Salt and millets are the staples of the return traffic. The total value of the local trade is estimated at £80,000 a year. Manufacture of coarse cloth and pottery. Court-house and treasury, custom-house, police station, *tahsíli*, jail, staging bungalow,

sarái (native inn), Government charitable dispensary, 2 schools. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1585, or 2s. 5¾d. per head of population (12,796) within municipal limits.

Sirsi.—Chief town of the Sirsi Subdivision of North Kánara District, Bombay; situated in lat. 14° 36′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., 320 miles south-east of Bombay, and about 40 miles south-east of the port of Kárwár, 2500 feet above sea level. The ground on which the town stands consists of quartz and gravel, the highest points of which are covered by a bed of laterite, while in the ravines on the western and northern sides there is micaceous schist broken through by diorite. Sirsi is a municipal town, with a population (1872) of 5285, and a municipal revenue of £619. Every second year, a fair is held here in honour of the deity Mari, which is attended chiefly by low-caste Hindus. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Sirsi.—Town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5607, consisting of 1616 Hindus and 3991 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 28° 36′ 30″ N., and long. 78° 39′ 45″ E., 17 miles south-west of Moradábád town, and 3 miles east of the Sót river.

Sirsi.—Petty State in the Goona Agency, under the Central India Agency. In 1820, the Mahárájá Dáulat Ráo Sindhia granted three-fourths of the revenue of the *táluk* of Sirsi to Barut Sah, on condition that he would pay the other fourth, and reduce the Grassias and other lawless tribes to obedience. In 1837, the payment of the one-fourth of the revenue was remitted on condition of military service when required. The revenue of the State was estimated in 1875 at £400 per annum. The present Díwán of Sirsi is named Bijái Bahádur.

Sirsundí.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 24 miles east of Wairágarh; comprising 15 villages. Sirsundí village is situated in lat. 20° 26′ N., and long. 80° 23′ E.

Siruguppa.—Town in Bellary District, Madras.—*See* SIRAGUPA.

Sirúr (or *Ghodnadi*).—Chief town of the Sirúr Subdivision of Poona District, Bombay; situated on the river Ghod, in lat. 18° 49′ 45″ N., and long. 74° 22′ 51″ E., 36 miles north-west of Poona city, and 34 miles south-west of Ahmednagar. Sirúr is a municipal town, with a total population (1872) of 5049, and a municipal revenue of £350. There is a cantonment at Sirúr, which is also the headquarters of the Poona Horse. At a hamlet about 2 miles south of the town, a Hindu fair, attended by about 3000 persons, is held yearly in March or April. Post office and dispensary.

Sirutandanallúr (or *Iral*).—Trading town in Tinnevelli District, Madras; situated near the mouth of the Támbraparni, in lat. 8° 38′ N., and long. 78° 35′ 15″ E. Pop. (1871), 5558, living in 1614 houses.

Sisang Chaudli.—One of the petty States in Hállár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 5 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £750; of which £72 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £22 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Siskal-betta (or *Sisukáli-betta*).—Lofty mountain, with a columnar peak, in the central range of the Western Gháts, which form the frontier between Hassan District, Mysore, and the Madras District of South Kanara.

Sispára (*Chichchipárai*).—Pass leading from Malabar to the Nílgiris District, Madras. Lat. 11° 12′ N., long. 76° 28′ E. Now entirely out of repair.

Sissaindi.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated on the banks of the Sái river, 6 miles south-east of Mohanlálganj. The seat of Rájá Kási Prasád, a wealthy *tálukdár*. Pop. (1869), 3140.

Sissána.—Agricultural town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 5051, consisting of 3830 Hindus, 467 Muhammadans, and 754 'others.'

Sítabáldí.—Battle-field near Nágpur city, in NAGPUR DISTRICT, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 9′ N., long. 79° 8′ E.

Sítákund.—Highest peak in the Sítákund range, Chittagong District, Bengal. A sacred hill, 1155 feet above sea level. Lat. 22° 37′ 40″ N., long. 91° 41′ 40″ E.

Sítákund (or *Chandranáth*).—Hot spring on the above mountain, said to be bituminous. A great place of pilgrimage for pious Hindus from all parts of India. Tradition states that Sítákund was visited by both Ráma and Siva; and it is believed to be one of the favourite earthly residences of the latter deity. The principal gathering is the *Siva Chaturdasi* festival, on the 14th day of the moon sacred to Siva (usually in February); it lasts about ten days, and is attended by from 10,000 to 20,000 devotees. The pilgrims live at lodging-houses kept for the purpose by Bráhmans, called *adhikárís*, each of whom is said to realize from £300 to £400 during this feast. Minor gatherings take place at Sítákund in or near the months of March and November, and on the occasion of every eclipse of the sun and moon. The ascent of Sítákund or Chandranáth Hill is said to redeem the pilgrim from the misery of a future birth. A meeting of Buddhists (chiefly hillmen) takes place on the last day of the Bengálí year at a spot on Chandranáth Hill, where the body of Gautama, the last Buddha, is locally reported to have been burned after death. Bones of deceased relatives are brought here, and deposited in a pit sacred to Gautama.

Sítákund.—An oblong tank, about 100 feet long by 50 feet wide, excavated in the MANDAR HILL, Bhágalpur District, Bengal, nearly

500 feet above the surrounding plain. The pilgrims who visit it are persuaded to believe that Sítá used to bathe in it during her stay on the hill with her husband when banished from Oudh. On the northern bank of this tank stood the first temple of Madhusúdan, ascribed to Rájá Chola, now entirely in ruins.

Sítalpur.—Village in Sáran District, Bengal; situated on the Gandak river. Pop. (1872), 2474.

Sítámarhí. — Subdivision of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal, lying between 26° 18′ 30″ and 26° 52′ 15″ N. lat., and between 85° 13′ 15″ and 85° 57′ 45″ E. long. Area, 996 square miles; villages, 1002; ouses, 98,607. Pop. (1872), 717,609, of whom 609,910, or 84·9 per cent., were Hindus; 107,567, or 15 per cent., Muhammadans; 115 Christians, and 17 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 50·2; average density of population per square mile, 721; number of villages per square mile, 1·01; persons per village, 716; houses per square mile, 99; persons per house, 7·3. This Subdivision consists of the 4 police circles of Sheohar, Sítámarhí, Belámochpakáuní, and Jali. In 1870, it contained 1 court, a force of 67 policemen, and 1459 village watchmen; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £946, 14s.

Sítámarhí.—Municipal town and headquarters of Sítámarhí Subdivision, Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Lakhandái, in lat. 26° 35′ 20″ N., and long. 85° 31′ 33″ E. Pop. (1872), 5496. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £112; rate of taxation, 4⅛d. per head. The town contains a good dispensary, school, *bázár*, and distillery, and a *munsífi* formerly stationed at Koelí; daily markets with trade in rice, *sakhwá* wood, oil-seeds, hides, and Nepál produce; chief manufactures—saltpetre, and the *jandó* or sacred thread worn by Bráhmans and others. Large fair held in the month of Chaitra, the principal day being the 9th of the Sukal Paksh, or Rámnámí, the day on which Ráma is said to have been born. This fair lasts a fortnight, and is attended by people from very great distances. Sewán pottery, elephants and horses, form the staple article of commerce; but the fair is noted for the large number of bullocks brought here, the Sítámarhí cattle being supposed to be an especially good breed. Tradition relates that the lovely Jánakí or Sítá, whose life is described in the *Rámáyana*, here sprang to life out of an earthen pot into which Rájá Janak had driven his ploughshare. Nine temples, of which five are in the same enclosure as that of Sítá, are dedicated to Sítá, Ḥanumán, Siva, and Dáhi. A wooden bridge here crosses the Lakhandái, built by Rúdra Prasád of Nánpur Koelí. Sítámarhí is connected by road with the Nepál frontier, with Darbhangah and Muzaffarpur.

Sítámau.—Native State in the Western Málwá Agency, under the Central India Agency. Area, 350 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 29,400; estimated revenue from all sources, £19,587. Tribute of £5500 is paid to Sindhia. The tribute was originally fixed at £6000, but was reduced by £500 in 1860 in compliance with the representations of the British Government. The principal products of the State are grain, opium, and cotton. Sítámau, like Sailána, formed originally a portion of Ratlam, and was separated from it on the death of Rám Sinh, Rájá of Ratlam in 1660 A.D., when his second son Kassur Dás succeeded to the lands now comprised in Sítámau. The present Rájá, Bhawání Sinh, a Rahtor Rájput, was born about 1836. He receives a salute of 11 guns. The military force consists of 6 guns, 50 horse, and 200 foot.

Sítámau.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 2′ 7″ N., and long. 75° 22′ 24″ E., about 230 miles south-west of the fort of Gwalior.

Sítámpetta.—Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras, being one of the principal roads from Vizagapatam into Ganjám, and the usual route into North Jáipur (Jeypore). Lat. 18° 40′ N., long. 83° 55′ E. The road is practicable for wheeled traffic.

Sítánagaram.—Hills in Kistna District, Madras, lying between 16° 28′ and 16° 29′ 40″ N. lat., and between 88° 38′ and 88° 38′ 40″ E. long., on the right bank of the Kistna river opposite BEZWADA, and forming one base of the great anicut. Near this are some interesting Buddhist remains, including a four-storied rock-cut temple now adapted to Vishnu worship.

Sitang.—Bold conical peak in the Singálilá range, Dárjíling District, Bengal; situated to the south-east of Dárjíling station. Lat. 26° 54′ 45″ N., long. 88° 26′ E.

Sítápur.—Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. It forms the north-west Division of Oudh, and comprises the three Districts of SITAPUR, HARDOI, and KHERI. Area, 7455 square miles, of which 3953 are returned as under cultivation; pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent changes of area), 2,603,619, namely, 2,325,920 Hindus, 276,803 Muhammadans, and 896 Christians. Number of males, 1,398,465; females, 1,205,154; average density of population, 348 per square mile; number of villages, 6097. Sítápur corresponds approximately to the old administrative Division or *sarkár* of Khairábád under the Delhi Emperors. The following table, showing the *parganás* of that Division in Akbar's time, and the different proprietary classes then and at the present day, is quoted from the *Provincial Oudh Gazetteer*, vol. iii. pp. 338-340 :—

STATEMENT SHOWING THE REVENUE, OWNERS, ETC. OF PARGANAS OF KHAIRABAD ACCORDING TO THE 'AIN-I-AKBARI,' AND AT THE PRESENT DAY.

Parganás.	Area in *bighas.*	Revenue demand according to *Aín-í-Akbarí.*	Proprietors in *Aín-í-Akbarí.*	Present Proprietors.
		Rs.		
Khairigarh	43,050	45,233	Bais, Bisens, Báchhils, Kurmís	Pahária Kshattriyas.
Kheri	260,168	81,504	Bisens, Janwárs	Janwárs, Chauháns.
Bhúrwára	21,740	6,152	Various tribes	Musalmáns.
Biswán	144,321	48,732	Báchhils	Musalmáns, etc.
Garh Kila Nawá Dhaurahra	15,811	12,246	Ahírs	Jángres, Síkhs, etc.
Barwár	135,319	88,634	Rájputs and Bráhmans	Various tribes.
Khairábád	159,072	54,031	Bráhmans	Do.
Láharpur	208,288	75,512	Do.	Gaurs.
Sára	68,832	52,299	Chauháns	Do.
Gopámau	120,698	20,779	Chawars, Kunwárs (Ahban), Báchhils	Various tribes.
Sadrpur	107,308	140,512	Janwárs, Báchhils	Raikwárs, etc.
Chatiápur (Sítápur)	...	...	Gaurs, Rájputs	Gaurs.
Sándi	211,714	78,883	Sombansis	Sombansis.
Palla	64,706	44,134	Báchhils	Janwárs, Chauháns.
Basára	8,971	10,886	Do.	Do.
Páila	56,156	31,531	Ahírs, Asas	Various.
Nímkhár	58,770	89,151	Ahírs	Do.
Machhrehta	...	...	Báchhils	Do.
Hargám	...	...	Bráhmans	Gaurs.

Sítápur.—A British District in the Sítápur Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 27° 7′ and 27° 53′ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ and 80° 26′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Return, 1878), 2206 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1869, 932,959 souls. The District is elliptical in shape; greatest length from south-east to north-west, 70 miles; extreme breadth from north-east to south-west, 55 miles. Bounded on the north by Kheri; on the east by Bahráich, the Gogra river marking the boundary line; and on the south and west by Bára Bánki, Lucknow, and Hardoi Districts, the Gumti river forming the boundary. The administrative headquarters of the District are at SITAPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Sítápur consists of one large plain, sloping imperceptibly from an elevation of 505 feet above sea level in the north-west, to

400 feet in the south-east, the fall averaging $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot per mile. Although containing no forest tracts and but little jungle, the country is well wooded with numerous groves, and closely cultivated, except in parts where the soil is barren or cut up into ravines. It is intersected by frequent streams, and contains many shallow ponds and natural reservoirs, which are full of water during the rains, but gradually dry up in the hot season. The District is naturally divided into two parts by a low ridge running down from the north, parallel to the course of the Chauka and Gogra rivers. The western division occupies about two-thirds of the entire District, and has a dry soil, which in the extreme west, towards the Gumti, becomes sandy. In the vicinity of the smaller streams, the surface is deeply scored by the ravines which form its natural drainage. The eastern division, locally known as the *ganjar*, consists of the *doábs* or alluvial plains between the Kewáni and Chauka, and the Chauka and Gogra rivers. This is a damp, moist tract, growing good rice-crops, but interspersed with patches of land covered with saline efflorescence (*reh*), which is entirely uncultivable, and is fatal to all wild vegetation except the stunted *babul* tree (Acacia arabica). This tract is very liable to inundation. The principal rivers are the following:—The GOGRA, the principal river of Oudh, forms the eastern boundary of Sítápur, and in the rainy season has a width of from 4 to 6 miles; the CHAUKA runs nearly parallel to the Gogra, 8 miles to the west, and finally falls into the latter river at Bahramghát in Bára Bánki District. Numerous cross channels connect the Gogra with the Chauka. Proceeding westwards are the Gon, Oel, Kewáni, Saráyan, and Gumti, the latter forming the western and southern boundary of the District. The Gogra is the only river navigable by boats of large tonnage throughout the year. The others are all fordable at certain points during the dry season. There are no large river-side towns in the District, nor any river trading population. The only mineral product is *kankar* or nodular limestone, which is found in abundance in many parts of the country. The indigenous trees of the District are the mango (Mangifera indica), *pípal* (Ficus religiosa), *gular* (Ficus glomerata), *pákar* (Ficus venosa), *bargad* or banian tree (Ficus indica), *ním* (Azadirachta indica), *sissu* (Dalbergia sissoo), *tun* (Cedrela toona), *simal* or cotton tree (Bombax heptaphyllum), *pharenda* (Syzigium jambolanum), *jámun* (Eugenia jambolanum), *bel* (Ægle marmelos), *kathal* (Artocarpus integrifolia), *bábul* (Acacia arabica), *khayer* (Acacia catechu), *dhák* (Butea frondosa), *khejur* (Phœnix sylvestris), *áonla* (Phyllanthus emblica), *siras* (Mimosa sirissa), tamarind (Tamarindus indica), *kachnár* (Bauhinia variegata), and the common bamboo. Gums and dyes are collected in the jungles, and fibres are utilized from the roots of the *dhák* tree and from *munj* and *sarpat* grass. None of the larger wild animals are met with. *Nílgái*, many

varieties of deer, wild hog, wolf, jackal, fox, and hare are common. The dolphin and crocodile are found in the Gogra.

History. — The history of Sítápur District presents no distinctive features apart from that of the Province as a whole; but the following paragraphs respecting the territorial distribution of property among the clans and their earlier history, quoted from the *Oudh Gazetteer*, may be found interesting :—

'To the east, the Raikwárs occupy most of the country between the Chauka and Kauriála, North and South Kundri forming part of the block of territory extending north and south about 60 miles along both sides of the Kauriála, over which for one or two centuries the Raikwárs have exercised a real or nominal supremacy. The great Raikwár estates of Baundi and Rámnagar are in Bahraich and Bára Bánki Districts; the younger branches of the clan settled in Sítápur, at Mallápur, at Chahlári, and at Rámpur, all on the western bank of the Kauriála. The ancestor of each branch got three or four villages, and has gradually increased his possessions through the aid and influence of the great lords of his blood in Baundi and Rámnagar. The estate of Chahlári was forfeited after the Mutiny for rebellion. The clan is a very small one in point of numbers.

'To the north, in *parganás* Sítápur, Láharpur, Hargám, Chandra, and Tambaur, the great Bamhan Gaur clan from Nárkanjari settled towards the close of Alamgír's reign. They commenced by attacking the Ahbans and the Janwárs of Kheri, who were driven into exile about 1760 A.D. The Gaurs then proceeded farther to the north-west, having meanwhile consolidated their power in Sítápur and Láharpur; they attacked the Musalmán Rájá of Muhamdi, defeated and drove him out. At length the Rohillás came to the aid of the Rájá, and drove back the Gaurs with heavy loss; the last battle was fought at Mailáni, 20 miles north of Kukra, so far had the Gaurs carried their victorious arms. They then joined with the Rájá of Dhaurahra in resisting Názim Sítal Parshád, the most sanguinary of all the satraps whom the early Oudh Nawábs let loose upon the conquered country. They were defeated with heavy loss at Dhaurahra; one of their chiefs was beheaded in the river under the fort of Khairigarh, and the clan then settled down into ordinary rural squires.

'To the south, the Khánzáda family of Bilahra, in Bára Bánki District, has within the last seventy years occupied most of the *parganás* of Mahmúdábád and Sadrpur, besides acquiring large estates in Biswán, by mortgage or simply as trustee. This family has generally numbered among its members men of ability and energy; they were connected by marriage with the influential Shaikhzádas of Lucknow, and were used by the Lucknow court as a check upon the great Raikwár kingdom along the Gogra, which their principality almost cut in two.

'To the east, the Ahbans held formerly *parganás* Nímkhár, Aurangábád, Maholi, and part of Khairábád, besides part of the Districts of Kheri and Hardoi. Lon Sinh, the great Rájá of Mitauli, was banished for rebellion in 1859, and his estate divided among a number of loyal grantees. His only brother tried in vain to recover a part of the property, which is said to have once included 2700 villages. The Ahbans produce a family tree with 109 generations; they are Chawar Kshattriyas, and came from Guzerat. Almost the only survivor of the clan in Sítápur is called a Kunwár, and is a man of little property or influence. The clan is now of no importance, so hollow and transitory was the power of these great landowners. A number of deeds were produced in the Kheri courts in which the Ahban chiefs are styled Mahárájás by the Emperors Akbar and Jahángír; they were skilfully executed forgeries. Their former *parganás* are now held by Mughal grantees from the Oudh kings, by Káyasths and others, probably retainers of the ancient Ahbans.

'The middle portion of Sítápur is held by many different clans of Kshattriyas. Originally, there was a powerful Chauhán sovereignty in Sítápur, and a Raghubansi principality in Tambaur; they have both disappeared. A variety of clans occupy each a *parganá* or the greater part of a *parganá*, except in Biswán and Khairábád, which were the seats of local governors, who took care to destroy the coherence of the clan system by breaking up its possessions and distributing them miscellaneously. It is remarkable that no clan except the Gaurs asserted its supremacy over large areas like the Kanhpurias, Sombansis, or Bais in Southern Oudh. It is a mistake, indeed, to call them clans; each is a collection of a few families, of whom the eldest member was the leader, and was called the Thákur. These gentlemen increased their estates during the later years of native rule by appropriating the shares of their brethren.

'The different landowning Kshattriya clans are the following:—In Gundlamau *parganá*, Báchhils; in Bári, Bais; in Pírnagar, Bais; in Manwán, Panwárs; in Rámkot, Janwárs; in Kurauna, Janwárs; in Machrehta, Kachhwáhas, Janwárs, Bais and Rahtors. The Janwárs' possessions are mainly to the west of the Saráyan; those of the Bais to the east. Both these clans are probably of indigenous origin, as are also the Báchhils and the Raghubansis. The Panwárs, Kachhwáhas, and Gaurs are immigrants from Rájputána. None of the above clans have a Rájá in Sítápur; but the Ahban Rájá of Mitauli, the Panwár Rájá of Itaunja, and the Raikwár Rájá of Baundi did to a certain extent exercise a control over their clansmen in the District. It is noteworthy that there is not in this District a single Rájá by descent recognised as such by the people, and the title is not even claimed by any one. The special feature of the Sítápur land proprietary is the

existence of a number of men, about fifteen, with large estates paying from £500 to £1900 land revenue, who have not been entered in the *tálukdars'* list.'

Sítápur figured prominently in the Mutiny of 1857. In that year, 3 regiments of Native infantry and a regiment of military police were quartered in Sítápur cantonments. The troops rose in mutiny on the morning of the 3rd June, fired on their officers, many of whom were killed, as were also several military and civil officers, with their wives and children, in attempting to escape. Ultimately, many of the refugees succeeded in escaping to Lucknow, while others obtained the protection of some loyal *zamíndárs.* On the 13th April 1858, Sir Hope Grant inflicted a severe defeat on the rebels near Biswán. Order was completely restored before the end of that year, the courts and offices were reopened; and since then nothing has occurred to disturb the peace of the District.

Population.—The population of Sítápur District, according to the Census of 1869, was 932,959, viz. 497,241 males and 435,718 females, spread over an area of 2206 square miles, and inhabiting 2039 towns and villages. Average density of population, 423 per square mile. Hindus numbered 813,331, or 87·17 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 117,807, or 12·83 per cent. The Christian population consists of 774 Europeans and 40 Eurasians. The remaining 1007 were prisoners in jail. Among high-caste Hindus, the most numerous are the Bráhmans, 99,596; Rájputs, 39,696; Vaisyas, 16,745; and Káyasths, 12,537. Of the low castes, the principal are—Chamárs, tanners and labourers, 111,745, being the most numerous caste in the District; Ahírs, cowherds and cultivators, 85,509; Kurmís, cultivators and *zamíndárs*, 74,597; Pásís, watchmen, labourers, etc., 72,771; Lodhís, cultivators, 36,146; Muráos, gardeners and cultivators, 32,593; Kahárs, palanquin-bearers, 26,367; and Telís, oilmen, 20,204. The higher classes of Muhammadans comprise—Patháns, 17,694; Shaikhs, 10,439; Sayyids, 2734; and Mughals, 1940. These are chiefly *tálukdárs* and *zamíndárs*, or servants in respectable employ, either Government or private. Of low-class Muhammadans, the most numerous are—Julahás, weavers, 30,895; Darzis, tailors, 7025; Kunjras, greengrocers, 4289; Ghosis, milkmen, 3649. Sítápur District contained, in 1869, 6 towns with upwards of 5000 inhabitants, namely—KHAIRABAD, 15,677; LAHARPUR, 10,890; BISWAN, 7308; MAHMUDABAD, 6312; SITAPUR, the administrative headquarters of the District, 5780 (exclusive of the cantonments); and PAINTEPUR, 5127. The four municipal towns or unions are Sítápur, Khairábád, Biswán, and Mahmudábád, containing a total population of 41,637. Total municipal income in 1876-77, £2080; expenditure, £2063; average incidence of taxation, 11½d. per head of population within municipal limits. The villages and townships are

thus classified in the Census Report of 1869:—782 contain less than 200 inhabitants; 682 from 200 to 500; 457 from 500 to 1000; 91 from 1000 to 2000; 21 from 2000 to 5000; and 6 upwards of 5000 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—Two harvests are gathered in the year—the *kharíf* or autumn crops, and the *rabí* or spring crops. The *kharíf* consists of the following:—Rice (Oryza sativa), *kodo* (Paspalum scrobiculatum), *sawan* (Panicum frumentaceum), *mandua* (Eleusine coracana), *kákim* (Panicum italicum), *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Pencillaria spicata), *til* (Sesamum orientale), *urid* or *mas* (Phaseolus radiatus), *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius), *pát* (Hibiscus sabdariffa), *san* (Crotolaria juncea). Rice forms the staple crop of the eastern or moist portion of the District. The *rabí* or spring crops are—wheat (Triticum vulgare), gram (Cicer arietinum), barley (Hordeum hexastichon), *láhi* or mustard (Sinapis nigra vel glauca), *tísí* or linseed (Linum usitatissimum), castor-oil (Ricinus communis), *matar* or peas (Pisum sativum), *masúri* (Ervum lens), *arhar* (Cajanus indicus), safflower (Carthamus tinctorius). Besides the above, which are the staple *kharíf* and *rabí* crops, a considerable quantity of sugar-cane is raised, as also cotton, *pán*, and tobacco. Poppy is cultivated under Government supervision. Garden produce consists of kitchen vegetables of every description, turmeric, spices, ginger, water-melons. The cultivated fruits are guavas, plantains, custard-apples, oranges and lemons, wood-apples, melons, pomelos, etc. The estimated area under the principal staples are—wheat, 165,003 acres; barley, 95,003; gram, 95,000; rice, 81,000; *joár*, 70,000; *bájra*, 52,000; oil-seeds, 30,000; sugar-cane, 15,000. The average size of a holding is about 3½ acres, or 1⅗ of an acre for each adult head of the agricultural population. The profits of cultivation, after paying for labour, are calculated at about 4s. per acre per year; labour at the market price is worth about £3 per annum; therefore a tenant cultivating 3½ acres with his own hands will be worth about £3, 14s. per annum, and if his cattle are his own, and he is unburdened by debt, he may make £4, 16s. What with bad seasons, unforeseen expenses, etc., the small tenant is generally in debt, and his net earnings in that case will be about £3 per annum. Rents, as a rule, are paid in kind, only about one-tenth of the whole being cash payments. The landlord's share varies from one-fourth to one-half, both extremes, however, being exceptional. Where rents are paid in money, the following are given as the average rates per acre in the official returns:—Rice lands, 8s. 4½d.; wheat, 10s. 10½d.; gram, barley, or maize, 7s. 3d.; cotton, 12s. 1½d.; opium, 19s. 6d.; oil-seeds, 8s. 3d.; sugar-cane, £1, 0s. 3d.; tobacco, £1, 1s. 9d. The average price of food grains per cwt. during the five years 1866-70, is returned as follows:—Wheat, 5s. 11d.; barley, 3s. 6½d.; gram, 5s. 6d.; and *bájra*,

4s. 6d. Wages are slightly higher than in the adjacent District of Bára Bánki. In Mahmudábád *parganá*, an agricultural labourer engaged by the month receives wages at the rate of 6s. per month. If working by the day at raising water from wells or tanks, he is paid at the rate of 3d. per diem in towns; and by an allowance of food grain in rural parts. The prevailing tenures are as follows:—937 villages or parts of villages, held in *tálukdárí*, 1226 in *zamíndárí*, 350 in *pattidárí*, and 59 in *bháyáchára*. There are 30 large *tálukdárs* paying a Government assessment of upwards of £500, of whom the following are the principal:—Rájá Amír Hassan Khán, assessed at £14,749; Thákur Siu Baksh Sinh, £7635; Thákur Jawáhir Sinh, £3850; Thákur Gumán Sinh, £3296; Muhammad Bakr Alí Khán, £3155. Most of the *tálukdárs* also hold estates in other parts of the Province. As indicated in the historical section of this article, the greater part of the land is in the hands of various clans of Kshattriyas, who are returned as holding 1379 villages in Sítápur. Muhammadans are the proprietors of 704 villages.

Natural Calamities.—The eastern portion of the District is peculiarly liable to floods, being under water more or less entirely every year during the rains. These inundations often devastate whole villages, and invariably cause loss to the inhabitants through the injury to their houses, the drowning of their cattle, and the destruction of their *kharíf* or autumn crops. In the great flood of 1871, three-fourths of the autumn crops perished, and from July to September the country was one sheet of water. Drought, however, is the main cause of famine; and the Deputy Commissioner reports that famine occurred in 1769-70, 1784-85, 1837-38, and in 1860-61, caused by want of rain. Sítápur was also verging on famine for a few months at the close of 1869, but a plentiful late crop happily saved the District.

Roads and Means of Communication, etc.—Two metalled lines of road run through Sítápur District—one from Sítápur town to Lucknow for 33½ miles, and the other to Sháhjahánpur for 23 miles. Unmetalled roads communicate with Lakhimpur, Hardoi, Mahmudábád, Bahráich, Mallápur, Mehndighát, Sandíla, Nímkhar, Kasta, Mitauli, Piháni, etc. Total length of roads in the District, 266 miles. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway nowhere touches on Sítápur District. The only manufactures of any note are those of tobacco and *taziás* at Biswán, with a little cotton printing and weaving in many of the towns. Biswán contains about 100 families of weavers; but here, as elsewhere, the industry is decaying, owing to the competition of English manufactured cloth.

Administration.—The judicial staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with two or three European and four or five native Assistants of various grades. The total imperial revenue of the District in 1871-72

was £147,588, of which £131,379 was derived from the land revenue. The civil expenditure in the same year amounted to £15,536. In the same year, receipts from local funds amounted to £13,159, and expenditure to £13,013. Total imperial and local revenue, £160,747; expenditure, £28,549. For police purposes, the District is divided into the following 10 police circles (*thánás*), viz.:—Sítápur, Bári, Maholi Mahmudábád, Misrikh, Biswán, Láharpur, Tambaur, Thánágáon, and Khimauna; with 4 outpost stations at Rudrapur, Jalálpur, Bahádurpur, and Nímkhar. The regular police force in 1873 consisted of 548 officers and men, maintained at a cost to Government of £7951; the village police or rural watch numbered 3913 men, maintained by the landholders or villagers at an estimated cost of £14,086; besides a town force of 131 officers and men, costing £682. Education is spreading steadily year by year. In 1875, there were 149 Government and aided schools in the District, attended by 6521 pupils. The Wesleyan Mission, the headquarters of which is at Sítápur, have a school at Khairábád. Charitable dispensaries are established at Sítápur and Mahmudábád.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District is healthy, and the cantonments of Sítápur are famous for the low mortality of the British troops stationed there. There are no diseases peculiar to the District. Intermittent fever, but not of a bad type, is prevalent from August to November. Small-pox appears from March to September; a few deaths from cholera are reported every year. Cholera appeared in an epidemic form in 1869 at the Nímkhar fair, when the mortality was very considerable. The mean temperature of the District ranges from 45° F. in the cold season, to 96° F. in the hot weather; but it is often so cold as to produce hoar-frost in the early mornings, and the manufacture of ice in shallow earthenware vessels is carried on in December and January. Average annual rainfall for the five years ending 1871, 32½ inches, the general average of the Province being 38 inches.

Sítápur.—Principal *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Lakhimpur, on the east by Biswán, on the south by Mahmudábád, and on the west by Misrikh. Area, 564 square miles, of which 357 are returned as under cultivation; pop. (1869), 246,291, viz. 199,198 Hindus and 47,103 Muhammadans; males, 131,784, and females, 114,517. Average density of population, 439 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 650. This *tahsíl* comprises the 6 *parganás* of Sítápur, Hargám, Láharpur, Khairábád, Pírnagar, and Rámkot.

Sítápur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east and south by the Saráyan river, and on the west by Maholi *parganá*. Area, 115 square miles, or 73,695 acres; of which 43,029 acres are returned as cultivated, 8651 as held

revenue free, 12,211 as cultivable, and 9794 as uncultivable waste. Pop. (1869), 49,896, viz. 41,825 Hindus and 8071 Muhammadans. Of the 159 villages constituting the *parganá*, only 5 are held by *tálukdárs*, 115 of the remaining 159 being held in *zamíndári* tenure by Gaur Kshattriyas. Government land revenue, £6607, being at the rate of 3s. 2¼d. per acre of cultivated area, 2s. 4¾d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 11⅞d. per acre of total area. Tradition states that Ráma and his wife Sítá sojourned here during their wanderings, and that a town was founded on the spot by Rájá Vikramáditya, and named Sítápur in honour of Sítá. About seven centuries ago, a tribe of Chauháns under Goheldeo, a relative of King Prithwi Ráj of Delhi, invaded the country, and drove out the Kurmís and low-caste tribes, who were then its possessors. Goheldeo and his descendants held sway for about five centuries, until the reign of Aurangzeb, when a tribe of Gaur Kshattriyas, led by Chandra Sen, dispossessed the Chauháns from their lands, with the exception of Sítápur, Saádatnagar, and Teñar. Chandra Sen had four sons, whose descendants still hold the greater part of the *parganá*. Sítápur was originally constituted a *parganá* by Rájá Todar Mall, the finance minister of Akbar.

Sítápur.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the banks of the Saráyan river, half-way on the road from Lucknow to Sháhjahánpur, in lat. 27° 34′ 5″ N., and long. 80° 42′ 55″ E. The population of the town, exclusive of the cantonments, in 1869, numbered 5780, Muhammadans slightly predominating. The town and station are picturesquely situated among fine mango groves. Annual *bázár* sales average about £48,000. Government school, attended by 170 pupils.

Sítápur.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; situated a short distance from the foot of the sacred hill of Chitrakot, on the left bank of the Paisuni river, 5 miles from Karwi and 43 miles from Bánda town. Pop. (1872), 2327. Many old and highly venerated temples. Pilgrims flock hither all the year round, and, after bathing, measure the circuit of Chitrakot Hill (5 miles) with their bodies extended flat on the ground, or by simply walking. The original name of the town appears to have been Jái Sinhpura, when it was inhabited by Kols, at a time when Chitrakot was already an ancient place of worship. Police outpost; brisk trade.

Sitarámpalli.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* CHATRAPUR.

Sítárámpur.—One of the abandoned coal-mines of the Ráníganj coal-field in Bardwán District, Bengal. There are five pits, one of which was opened in 1847 and the remaining four in 1864. Total out-turn of coal in 1866, 78,490 *maunds*. The mine was abandoned in consequence of the poor quality of the coal.

Sitoung.—River of Burma.—*See* TSIT-TOUNG.

Sitpur.—Municipal village in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 1798. Municipal income (1876-77), £146; expenditure, £104; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 6⅜d. per head of population.

Sivaganga.—*Zamíndárí* in Madura District, Madras. Area, about 1460 square miles; pop. (1871), 432,023, living in 2193 villages and 95,886 houses. The *peshkash* (revenue) paid to Government is £28,782. The *zamíndárí* was formerly part of the Rámnád or Setupatí's territory. About 1730, Kattaya Tevan, 11th Setupatí, surrendered to the *pálegár* of Nalkotái ('four forts'), Seshavarna Tevan, two-fifths of his kingdom, which thenceforth became independent of Rámnád. In 1772, the *pálegár's* country was reduced by the British under Colonel Joseph Smith; and the Rájá was killed while endeavouring to escape by one of the gates of the fort of Kálaiyár Kovil. The Rání escaped to Mysore with some of her friends, and sought protection from Haidar Alí. Later on, she was restored to the *zamíndárí;* but on her death in 1800, Seshavarna's line became extinct. In July of the following year, Udáya Tevan was proclaimed *zamíndár* of Sivaganga. The permanent settlement of the estate was made with him in 1803. The Sivaganga estate has figured in the civil courts for many years in one of the most notable of Hindu succession cases. The town of Sivaganga (lat. 9° 51′ N., long. 78° 31′ 50″ E.) contains (1871) 7392 inhabitants.

Sivaganga.—Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 10′ N., and long. 77° 17′ E., 4559 feet above sea level. Many religious associations are connected with this hill, and its face is crowded with sacred buildings and inscriptions. On the east its outline is supposed to resemble a bull, on the west Ganesha, on the north a serpent, and on the south a *linga.* The number of steps leading to the summit is reckoned equal to the number of *yojanas* hence to Benares, and consequently the ascent is held to be a vicarious pilgrimage to that city. The two principal temples on the northern face, dedicated to Gangadhareswára and Honna Devamma, are formed out of large natural caverns. On the eastern face is a Lingáyat *máth*, or monastery. The village of the same name is at the northern base of the hill; pop. (1871), 721. The houses are all of stone, and form one street, approached by a gateway, through which the car of the god is drawn at religious festivals.

Sivagiri.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 20′ 20″ N., long. 77° 28′ E.; pop. (1871), 13,274, inhabiting 3237 houses. Sivagiri is the headquarters of a *zamíndárí* of the same name, which pays a *peshkash* (revenue) to Government of £5458. The cattle here are of a superior breed.

Sivakási.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 27′ 10″

N., long. 77° 50′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 10,153, inhabiting 2422 houses. Active trade with Travancore, chiefly in tobacco.

Sivasamudram (or *Sivanásamudaram*, lit. 'Sea of Siva').—Island formed by the branching of the Káveri (Cauvery) river into two streams, each of which makes a descent of about 200 feet in a series of picturesque rapids and waterfalls; situated in the Madras District of Coimbatore, just outside the frontier of Mysore; about 3 miles long, by ¾ of a mile broad. The island is properly called Heggura, but the name of Sivasamudram is derived from an ancient city (lat. 12° 16′ N., long. 77° 14′ E.), of which a few remains lie strewed around. This city is said to have been founded in the 16th century by Ganga Rájá, a scion of the Vijayanagar line. His dynasty only endured for two generations; and the tragic story of its end is locally associated with the various spots that make up the picturesque scenery of the waterfalls. In 1791, at the time of the advance of the British army, under Lord Cornwallis, upon Seringapatam, Tipú Sultán laid waste the surrounding country, and drove all the inhabitants and the cattle into this island. Subsequently the whole area became overgrown with jungle, and the old stone bridges connecting it with the mainland were impassable. About 1824, their repair was undertaken by a confidential servant of the Residency of Mysore, named Rámaswámi Mudaliyár. He expended several thousand pounds on the work, and was rewarded by the British Government with the title of Janopakára Kámkartá, or Public Benefactor. He also received a *jágír* or rent-free estate from the British Government, with a rental of £800 a year, and seven villages from the Mysore State, yielding an additional £900. The new bridges are built on pillars of hewn stone founded in the rocky bed of the stream, and connected by stone girders. A bungalow has also been erected by the *jágírdár*, where European visitors are entertained. The most favourable time to visit the falls is in the rainy season, as during the winter months the island is malarious. On the western branch of the river, which forms the boundary between Mysore and Coimbatore, are the Gagani Chukki Falls, about 2 miles below the bungalow. The waters divide round a small island called Ettikur, and dash with deafening roar over vast boulders of rock in a cloud of foam. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton wrote: 'I have never seen any cataract that for grandeur could be compared with this.' The falls on the eastern branch of the river, called the Bar Chukki, are more easily accessible, and display a yet greater volume of water. In the rainy season an unbroken sheet, a quarter of a mile wide, pours over the rocks; but during the dry months this separates into several distinct cascades. In the centre is a horseshoe recess, down which the principal stream falls, and having been collected into a narrow gorge, rushes forward to again precipitate itself 30 feet into the deep pool below.

Siwálik Hills.—Mountain range in Dehrá Dún District, North-Western Provinces, and in Sírmúr State and Hushiárpur District, Punjab; lying between 29° 58′ 4″ and 30° 23″ N. lat., and between 77° 45′ and 78° 11′ 28″ E. long. The chain runs parallel with the Himálayan system, from Hardwár on the Ganges to the banks of the Beas (Biás). Geologically speaking, it belongs to the tertiary deposits of the outer Himálayas; and it is chiefly composed of low sandstone and conglomerate hills, the solidified and upheaved detritus of the great range in its rear. Rising from the bed of the Ganges, at the point where that river debouches upon the plains of Saháranpur, the Siwálik chain runs across Dehrá Dún District in a north-westerly direction, till it dips again for a while into the Jumna (Jamuná) valley. The northern slope leads gently down into the vale of Dehrá Dún, a beautiful glen or depression between the Himálayas and their outlying Siwálik subordinates; but southward, a steep and bold escarpment falls abruptly toward the Saháranpur plain. A thick forest of *sál* and *sain* clothes the lower sides, while on the higher crests pine woods indicate a cooler climate. Wild elephants abound; and the fauna in this section also includes tigers, sloth-bears, leopards, hyænas, spotted deer, pigs, and monkeys. Beyond the Jumna, the Siwálik chain once more rises up in Sírmúr State, the valley to the north, in continuation of that of Dehrá, here bearing the name of the Khiárda Dún. Thence it passes through the Simla Hill States, dips so as to allow the passage of the Sutlej (Satlaj) through a depression in its line, and rises once more in British territory in Hushiárpur District. The range runs in the same general direction till it reaches the Beas (Biás) basin, where it terminates near Ditárpur, in a cluster of round undulating hills, crowned by the Government bamboo forests of Bindrában and Karampur. The intermediate valley between the Siwáliks and the Himálayas, in Hushiárpur District, is known as the Jaswan Dún. After leaving the Sutlej, the range becomes more and more a mere broad tableland, at first enclosed by sandy hillocks, but finally spreading out into minor spurs of irregular formation. This portion of the chain consists of a barren soil, rarely interspersed with patches of forest or cultivated fields. The total length of the range from the Ganges to the Beas is about 200 miles, and its average breadth about 10 miles. The highest peaks have an elevation of about 3500 feet above the sea. The principal pass is that of Mohan in Dehrá Dún District, by which the main road from Saháranpur to Dehrá and Mussooree (Masuri) traverses the range. All the great rivers which run at right angles to the Siwáliks—the Ganges, Jumna, Sutlej, and Beas—have worn themselves valleys through this chain. Its outlying continuation may be traced east of the Ganges for 600 miles, but of such inferior elevation as to attract little attention. The palæontology of the Siwáliks possesses unusual interest from the abundant fossil

remains of large vertebrates, especially mammals. The most remarkable are the sivatherium—a gigantic ruminant, whose dimensions exceeded those of the rhinoceros—and various quadrumana, whose occurrence in tertiary deposits was first noticed among these hills.

Siyána (*Siana*).—Ancient town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 37′ 55″ N., and long. 78° 6′ 20″ E., on a raised site, near the Anúpshahr branch of the Ganges Canal; 19 miles north-east of Bulandshahr town, on the Garhmukhteswar road. Pop. (1872), 6268, consisting of 4095 Hindus and 2173 Muhammadans. Anciently known as Sainban or 'the forest of rest,' because Bálárám, on his way from Muttra (Mathurá) to Hastinápur, slept here one night, and was hospitably entertained by *fakírs*, who had excavated a tank in the centre of a vast forest. The name was changed to Siyána under the rule of the Dor Rájputs, who were succeeded by the Taga Bráhmans, and still later by the Shaikhs under Abdul Fath, a *fakír*, in the reign of Alá-ud-dín Ghori. Capital of a *mahál* in Akbar's time, but now a poor collection of mud huts. Indigo factory, trade in safflower. Police station, post office, village school.

Skardo.—Town in Balti State, Kashmír.—*See* ISKARDOH.

Soane.—River and canal in Bengal.—*See* SON.

Sobnálí.—River of the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; also known as the Kundriá and the Bengdaha, and in its lower reaches as the Guntiákhálí. It takes its rise from a number of small water-courses in the Bayrá marsh, near the village of Báltiá, and, after a south-easterly course, ultimately joins the Kholpetua. The Sobnálí is so called from its passing the large village of that name. It forms one of the principal boat routes between Calcutta and the eastern Districts.

Sobráon.—Village in Lahore District, Punjab; situated on the west bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), in lat. 31° 7′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., near the south-east corner of the District. Pop. (1868), 3793. Opposite this village, on the east bank of the river, in Firozpur District, lies the famous battle-field where Sir Hugh (afterwards Lord) Gough gained his decisive victory of 10th February 1846, which brought to a close the first Síkh war, and led to the occupation of Lahore by a British force. The Síkhs had taken up a strong position on the east side of the Sutlej, protecting the Haríkí ford, while their rear rested upon the village of Sobráon. The battle took place on the Firozpur side, where the Síkhs gallantly held their earthworks until almost their last man had fallen. Comparatively few made their way back across the river. This battle immediately cleared the whole left bank of the Sutlej of the Sikh force, and the victorious army crossed into the Punjab by a bridge of boats opposite Firozpur, and took possession of Lahore.

Sohág.—Canal in Lahore and Montgomery Districts, Punjab, one

of the 'Upper Sutlej Inundation Canals.' Lat. 30° 28′ to 30° 43′ N., long. 73° 24′ to 74° 15′ E. Has its headwaters from the Sutlej (Satlaj) in the village of Bhaddru, Lahore, whence it flows on to Pákpattan in Montgomery, and then loses itself in the sands. Dry except in the rainy season, it brings down a considerable body of water during inundations, and is of great value to the lowlands through which it passes, and to which it affords a means of irrigation. In 1827, Sardár Govind Sinh, of Mokhal, a large resident proprietor, compelled the people to repair the canal, which was done with forced labour. In 1855, Colonel Anderson connected it with the Sutlej, since which time a fair supply of water has been obtained. The canal irrigates 23 estates. A second channel, the LOWER SOHAG CANAL, is confined to Montgomery District. Formerly the bed of a hill stream, it remained dry for many years, till a Kárdár of Hiráli joined it to the Sutlej, by a cut of about 3 miles in length. The supply of water is very precarious, the head near the Sutlej silting up almost every year.

Sohágpur.—Eastern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Area, 1067 square miles; pop. (1872), 118,963, residing in 398 villages or townships and 23,261 houses.

Sohágpur. — Town in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 52′ N., and long. 78° 1′ E., on the high-road from Bombay, 30 miles east of Hoshangábád town. Pop. (1872), 7552, a large portion of whom are Muhammadans. The stone fort, now dismantled, was built about 1790, by Faujdár Khán, a Muhammadan *jágírdár*, who held the country round for the Rájás of Nágpur. In 1803, Wazír Muhammad of Bhopál attacked the fort without success. The town had for about ten years a mint, which struck a rupee worth 13 annas, now very rare. Manufactures, silk-weaving and lac-melting. Sohágpur contains a *tahsíli*, police station-house, and a good *sarái* (native inn); and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway has a station at the town (distance from Bombay 494 miles). Six miles to the east, at the large village of Sobhápur, an important weekly market is held, with a large trade in country cloth from Narsinpur and elsewhere. A Gond Rájá lives at Sobhápur.

Sohán. — River in Ráwal Pindi and Jhelum (Jhílam) Districts, Punjab. Rises in the Murree (Marri) Hills a few miles from the sanatorium of Murree, in lat. 33° 52′ N., and long. 73° 27′ E., and flows down deep valleys for the first 10 miles of its course, till it reaches the plains near the ruined Ghakkar fortress at Pharwála. Thence it takes a south-westerly direction, and finally joins the Indus 10 miles below Mokhad. A magnificent bridge conveys the Grand Trunk Road across the stream, 3 miles east of Ráwal Pindi. Quicksands are numerous in the river bed, and often dangerous in the lower part, occasionally swallowing up even elephants. Fordable except in the floods; no ferries.

The waters are but little diverted for mills, and hardly at all for irrigation, as the heavy inundations prevent the construction of permanent cuts. Innumerable torrents empty themselves into the channel from ravines on either side, and carry off the drainage of the surrounding country.

Soháwal.—Native State in Bághelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bághelkhand Agency and the Central India Agency. The territories of the State lie in two distinct patches, separated from each other by Kothi; the northern portion is also so intermixed with lands belonging to Panna, that it is difficult to calculate the area of Soháwal accurately. It is probably about 300 square miles; and the population is estimated at 55,000. The gross revenue amounts to about £10,000, but two-thirds of this have been alienated in rent-free tenures and religious and charitable grants, leaving the chief an estimated revenue of £3200 with which to conduct the administration. The State of Soháwal was formerly a portion of Rewah territory; but about the middle of the 16th century, when Amar Sinh was ruler of Rewah, his son Fateh Sihn threw off his father's authority and established his independence as Chief of Soháwal. His descendant, Lál Aman Sinh, was found in possession on the British occupation of Bághelkhand, and was consequently confirmed in his State, on his tendering a deed of allegiance. In consequence of the improvidence and misrule of its chiefs, the State has more than once come under British management. It was last made over in 1871, free of debt, to the present Ráis of Soháwal, Lál Sher Jang Bahádur Sinh, who is by race a Bághel Rájput, and was born about 1851. A small police force is maintained of about 50 men.

Soháwal.—Chief town of Soháwal State, Bághelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 34′ 35″ N., and long. 80° 48′ 50″ E., not far from the line of railway between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Allahábád, on the river Sutri, which is here crossed by a ford. Elevation above the sea, 1059 feet. Thornton states that this town was formerly defended by a fort, which is now in ruins.

Sohi-ong.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam; presided over by a *lyng-doh*. Pop. (1872), 1951.

Sohna.—Town and sulphur spring in Gurgáon District, Punjab; situated in lat. 28° 14′ N., and long. 77° 7′ E., at the foot of the Mewát Hills. Pop. (1868), 7507, consisting of 3705 Hindus, 2162 Muhammadans, and 1640 'others.' Ancient Rájput settlement, first of Hindus, then of Musalmán Rájputs, whose prosperity is attested by numerous old mosques. The original proprietors, however, who had settled in Jullundur (Jalandhar) after their expulsion from Sohna, being directed in a dream by their patron saint, set out once more to recover their patrimony, and, after a bloody battle (*circa* 1160), regained possession of the town, which their descendants still hold. On the British conquest in 1803, the Játs of Bhartpur were found in power. Sohna owes its chief

importance to its hot sulphurous spring, issuing from the foot of the Mewát Hills, and enclosed by a substantial reservoir, covered in with a dome-shaped roof. Several tanks for medicinal bathing surround the central building. The water has a temperature varying from 115° to 125° F., and it is considered a specific for the well-known 'Delhi ulcers.' A large bath has been constructed for the use of Europeans.

Sojima.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 32′ N., long. 72° 46′ E.; pop. (1872), 11,322.

Solan.—Small cantonment and hill sanatorium in Simla District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 55′ N., and long. 77° 9′ E., on the southern slope of the Krol Mountain, on the cart-road between Kálka and Simla, 30 miles from the latter station. Ground acquired for a rifle range in 1863-64; barracks afterwards erected, which accommodated in 1874 a battalion of European troops.

Soláni.—River in Sahåranpur and Muzaffarnagar Districts, North-Western Provinces. Rises in the Siwálik Hills, from the Mohan Pass, flows in a general south-westerly direction, and falls into the Ganges, after a total course of about 55 miles. A magnificent aqueduct of brick-work, with 15 arches, each 50 feet in span, conveys the waters of the Ganges Canal across the valley of this river near Rurki (Roorkee), and the Soláni itself flows through the open passage beneath. In Muzaffarnagar District, the Soláni formerly occupied a deep channel of its own; but of late years it has turned aside into a long line of marshy lakes (*jhíls*), which mark the ancient bed of the Ganges. The *parganá* of Gordhanpur, which comprises the delta between the Soláni and the Ganges, consists in great part of swamps fed by the overflow from this river, and the percolation from the Ganges Canal. Efforts have been made by the Irrigation Department to check the inundation, and drain the swampy area, but hitherto with only partial success.

Solavandán. — Town in Madura District, Madras.—*See* SHOLAVANDAN.

Somástipur. — Trading village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the south bank of the Burí Gandak river, about 2 miles west of Nagarbasti, on the road from Tájpur to Ruserá. Large export of *ghí.* Oil-seeds are also exported, and food grains and salt received in exchange.

Someswari. — River in Garo Hills District, Assam.—*See* SAMESWARI.

Somná. — Village in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated 14½ miles north-west of Alígarh town, on the Delhi road. A station on the East Indian Railway, 889 miles from Calcutta (Howrah), and 65 from Delhi. Pop. (1872), 2033. Police station; post office.

Somnáth (*Deo Pattan, Prabhás Pattan, Veráwal Pattan,* or *Pattan Somnáth*).—Ancient town, situated in lat. 22° 7′ N., and long. 71° 34′ E.,

at the eastern extremity of a bay on the south coast of the Peninsula of Káthiáwár, Bombay. The western headland of the same bay is occupied by the port of VERAWAL, which gives to the locality its more common name of Veráwal Pattan. On the edge of the sea, nearly half-way between the two towns, stands a large and conspicuous temple, dedicated to the Hindu god Siva. A few hundred yards behind this temple is the reservoir called Bhát Kund, the traditional scene of the death of Srí Krishna. Farther inland rises the wild hill district called the Gir, and in the remote distance stands out the sacred mountain which the people of Káthiáwár delight to call the royal GIRNAR. The country near Somnáth is full of memorials of Krishna, the principal centre of interest being a spot to the east of the city, where, near the union of three beautiful streams, the body of the hero is said to have been burnt. Somnáth is a gloomy place—a city of ruins and graves. On the west, the plain is covered with Musalmán tombs; on the east are numerous Hindu shrines and monuments. The city was protected on the south by a fort, and on the remaining three sides by a deep trench cut out of the solid rock. The fort, situated on the shore within a few feet of high water-mark, does not depart in any important particular from the general design of Guzerat fortresses. It is square in form, with large gateways in the centre of each side, outworks or barbicans in front of these, and second gateways in the sides of the outworks. Before its capture by Mahmúd of Ghazní (1024-1026 A.D.), little is known of the history of Somnáth. In the 8th century, this part of Káthiáwár is said to have been in the hands of a line of Rájput princes bearing the surname of Chánda. These chiefs probably owned allegiance to that powerful Rájput family, the Chálukyas or Solankis, who reigned at Kalyán, near Bedar, in the Deccan.

Somnáthpur.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State; celebrated for its temple of Prasanna Chenna Kesava. According to an inscription at the entrance, it was completed in 1270 by a prince of the Ballála dynasty. The whole is most elaborately ornamented; and the structure is completed by three *simánas* or pyramidal towers surmounting the triple shrine. Round the exterior base are portrayed the leading incidents in the *Rámáyana*, *Mahábhárata*, and *Bhágavata*, carved in relief in potstone, the termination of each chapter and section being indicated respectively by a closed and half-closed door. The number of separate sculptured images is 74. The workmanship is attributed to Jackanáchári, the famous sculptor and architect of the Ballála kings, under whom Hindu art in Mysore reached its culminating point. There is also at Somnáthpur a large temple of Siva in ruins.

Somsa Parwat.—Peak of the Western Gháts in South Kánara District, Madras; 6300 feet high. Lat. 13° 8′ N., long. 75° 18′ E. The

hill is used as a sanatorium by the people of South Kánara; there are two or three bungalows, but no village; easy access by road (40 miles) from Mangalore. The climate, except from June to September, during the south-west monsoon, is delicious, and for sportsmen there is abundance of game. Wood, water, and grass are also plentiful. There is no plateau, properly speaking, but undulating ground along the line of the mountain for some miles. English fruits, flowers, and vegetables grow well, and in most respects the climate and soil resemble those of KUNUR (Coonoor).

Son (*Soane* or *Sone;* said to be derived from the Sanskrit *Sona*, 'crimson').—A great river of Central India, and (excluding the Jumna) the chief tributary of the Ganges on its right bank. It rises in 22° 41′ N. lat., and 82° 7′ E. long., in the Amarkantak highlands, about 3500 feet above the sea. This tableland also supplies the sister sources of the NARBADA and the MAHANADI, and is included in a tract of wild country recently transferred to the State of Rewah. Thence the Son flows in a generally northern direction, often forming the boundary between the Central Provinces and the States comprised in the Baghelkhand Agency, through an intricate maze of hills, until it strikes upon the KAIMUR range, which here constitutes the southern wall of the Gangetic plain. At this point, in 24° 5′ N. lat., and 81° 6′ E. long., it is diverted to the east, and holds that direction in a tolerably straight course until it ultimately falls into the Ganges, about 10 miles above Dinápur, in 25° 41′ 30″ N. lat., and 84° 52′ E. long., after a total length of about 465 miles. Its upper course, of about 300 miles, lies in a wild hilly country, which has been but imperfectly explored. In its lower section, of about 160 miles, it first flows across the British District of Mírzápur in the North-Western Provinces, and then, passing into Behar, separates Sháhábád from Gayá and Patná. Its principal tributaries are—on the left bank, the Johila and Mahánadi, both in the upper portion of its course; and on the right bank, the Gopat, Rehand, Kanhar, and Koel, the last of which, and by far the most important, falls into it nearly opposite the famous hill fort of Rohtasgarh. There are no towns on its banks, nor even commercial marts of any magnitude. So far as regards navigation, its stream is mainly used for floating down large rafts of bamboos and a little timber. An estimate from Sháhábád gives the total number of bamboos thus exported as 4,000,000. In the rainy season, native boats of large tonnage occasionally proceed for a short distance up stream; but navigation is even then rendered dangerous by the extraordinary violence of the flood, and during the rest of the year becomes impossible, owing to the small depth of water. The utility of the Son for irrigation will be dwelt upon at length in the following article. The fish found in this river are said to be superior to those of the Ganges.

In the lower portion of its course, the Son is marked by several striking characteristics. Its bed is enormously wide, in some places stretching for 3 miles from bank to bank. During the greater part of the year this broad channel is merely a waste of drifting sand, with an insignificant stream that is nearly everywhere fordable. The discharge of water at this time is estimated at only 620 cubic feet per second. But in the rainy season, and especially just after a storm has burst on the plateau of Central India, the river rises with incredible rapidity. The entire rainfall of an area of about 23,000 square miles requires to find an outlet by this channel, which frequently proves unable to carry off the total flood discharge, calculated at $1\frac{3}{4}$ million cubic feet per second. These heavy floods are of short duration, seldom lasting more than four days; but in recent years they have wrought much destruction in the low-lying plains of Sháhábád. Near the sight of the great dam at Dehri, the Son is crossed by the Grand Trunk Road on a stone causeway; and lower down, near Koelwár, the East Indian Railway has been carried across on a lattice girder bridge. This bridge, begun for a single line of rails in 1855, and finally completed for a double line in 1870, has a total length of 4199 feet from back to back of the abutments, divided among 28 spans, which stand upon piers sunk in wells 30 feet below the level of low water.

The Son possesses historical interest as being probably identical with the Erannoboas of Greek geographers. Arrian and Strabo, both apparently repeating the description of an eye-witness Megasthenes, represent Palibothra, the capital of Magadha in the 3rd century B.C., as standing near the confluence of the Erannoboas with the Ganges. The Erannoboas they also agree in calling the third largest river in India, next after the Ganges and the Indus. Now, Palibothra is undoubtedly the same as the Pátaliputra of the Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Thsang, and the modern Patná. Some authorities, including in recent times Mr. Beglar, Assistant to the Archæological Surveyor, have been disposed to find the Erranoboas in the GANDAK or *Hiranya-vati.* But General Cunningham himself, here following the arguments of Mr. Ravenshaw, has no hesitation in identifying the Erranoboas with the Son, which anciently bore the name of *Hiranya-báhu*, or 'the golden armed' (a title of Siva). In addition, we know that the junction of the Son with the Ganges has been gradually receding farther westwards. Old channels of the Son have been found between Bánkipur and Dinápur, and even below the present site of Patná. In the *Bengal Atlas* of 1772, the junction is marked near Maner, and it would seem to have been at the same spot in the 17th century. It is now about 10 miles higher up the Ganges.

Son Canals.—A grand system of irrigation works in the Province of Behar, taking its name from the Son river. It consists of a series of

canals in the three districts of Sháhábád, Gayá, and Patná, which all branch off from an anicut or dam thrown across the Son at the village of Dehri. The project dates from 1855, when Colonel Dickens, on behalf of the East India Irrigation Company, proposed the construction of canals, both for irrigation and navigation, from Chanár to Patná—a scheme subsequently extended to Mírzápur on the west, and Monghyr on the east. In 1867, the Company obtained the sanction of Government to their plans, on the understanding that their concession would fail if they did not make satisfactory progress. Beyond applying for a guarantee of interest on their capital, the Company scarcely commenced operations; and finally, in 1867, their claims were bought up by Government, who forthwith took up the enterprise in earnest, though with curtailed designs.

The general plan of the works comprises the Dehri anicut, a Main Western Canal, branching off from the anicut on the left bank, and a Main Eastern Canal branching off on the right. As a matter of fact, these two main canals remain unfinished; and the actual working of the system is confined to their subordinate branches.

Dehri.—The little village of Dehri, or Dehri *ghát*, situated on the left bank of the river, near the 338th milestone from Calcutta on the Grand Trunk Road, is the headquarters of the engineering staff and a centre of great activity. Work was begun here in 1869 by the construction of a tramway to Dhodhand or Dhaudang in the neighbouring hills, whence all the building-stone has been brought. At the same time, the workshops were commenced, from the designs and under the supervision of Mr. Fouracres, whose originality and energy are impressed upon every department of the undertaking. These workshops are substantial stone buildings with iron roofs; they comprise a foundry, saw-mill, blacksmiths' and carpenters' shops, fitting-shop, and boatyard. They have turned out all the wood and iron work required for the canals, and also take private orders. In 1872, a training school was opened at Dehri for both Europeans and natives, with the object of providing a skilled staff of subordinates for the Public Works Department.

The Anicut or dam consists of a mass of masonry, 12,500 long by 120 feet broad, thrown across the main channel of the river. The foundations were formed by hollow blocks or wells, which sank by their own weight, while the sand was excavated from within. On these wells two solid walls were built, the upper or main wall to the height of 8 feet above the normal level of the river bed, the rear wall to the height of 5½ feet. The space between was filled up with rubble, faced on a sloping surface with hewn stone. To provide for superfluous water in time of flood three sets of sluices have been inserted, one in the middle of the weir, and one at either side. The two latter are

also intended, by their scouring action, to prevent the mouths of the canals from silting up. Each of these sets of sluices contains 22 vents of 20½ feet span, fitted with iron shutters, which open and shut by means of an ingenious system of self-acting machinery. The total cost of the anicut was about £150,000 up to 1875, in which year it was declared to be finished. The highest floods since recorded have risen nearly 6 feet above the crest of the work, but no damage has been done to the main structure.

The Western Main Canal branches off from the left bank of the river immediately above the anicut. It is intended to irrigate a total area of 1,200,000 acres. Its dimensions at starting are—breadth at base, 180 feet; depth of water in full supply, 9 feet; thus giving a maximum capacity of 4511 cubic feet of water per second. At present, this canal is chiefly used to supply the Arrah and the Baxár and Chausá Canals, which all branch of within the first 12 miles. The main canal is continued for a total distance of 22 miles, as far as the Grand Trunk Road, 2 miles beyond Sasseram. Its prolongation for a farther distance of 50 miles to the frontier of the District, towards Mírzápur, was commenced as a relief work during the scarcity of 1874-75. The chief engineering work is the siphon-aqueduct of 25 arches, by which a formidable hill torrent called the Káo is carried under the canal.

The Arrah Canal branches off from the preceding at its 5th mile, and is estimated to carry 1616 cubic feet of water per second. It follows the course of the Son for 30 miles, and then strikes northwards, running on a natural ridge past the town of Arrah, and finally falls into a branch of the Ganges after a total course of 60 miles. It is designed for navigation as well as irrigation; but up to the present time no permanent communication has been opened with the main stream of the Ganges. To overcome the total fall of 180 feet, 13 locks have been constructed. This canal commands a total area of 441,500 acres, which is estimated to be equally divided between *kharíf* and *rabí* crops. Besides four principal distributaries, its main offshoots are the Bihiyá Canal, 30½ miles long; and the Dúmráon Canal, 40½ miles long.

The Baxár Canal leaves the Main Western Canal at its 12th mile, and is estimated to carry 1260 cubic feet of water per second. It communicates with the Ganges at Baxár, after a course of 55 miles, and is also intended for navigation. Its continuation, known as the Chausá Canal, has an additional length of 40 miles. The two together command an area of 309,500 acres. The total fall is 159 feet, which is overcome by 12 locks.

The Eastern Main Canal takes off from the right bank of the river, just opposite the mouth of the Western Canal. It was originally

intended to run as far as Monghyr, but at present it stops short at the Púnpún river, a total length of only 8 miles.

The Patná Canal leaves the preceding at its 4th mile, and follows the course of the Son till it joins the Ganges near the jail at Digah, between Bankipur and Dinapur. Its total length is 79 miles, of which 43 miles lie within the District of Gayá, and 36 in Patná. It commands a total area of about 780 square miles, or 499,200 acres. It was opened for navigation in October 1877, but its utility for irrigation has been delayed by the failure of a contractor to complete the minor distributaries.

Financial Aspects.—Up to the close of the year 1877-78, the total outlay for works, establishments, tools, and plant amounted to £1,908,504. This is the capital amount on which interest is charged; but the actual expenditure on all heads at the same date was £2,736,350. The total estimate sanctioned is £3,173,034. It is still premature to anticipate what the future income will be; but the experience of two recent years of scarcity—1873-74 and 1877-78—proves that the agriculture of this tract has now been saved from the former risk of uncertainty. In 1873-74, when even the main channels were unfinished, water was passed through them sufficient to irrigate nearly 160,000 acres, thus increasing the food supply by an amount estimated at 70,000 tons, and valued at £48,000. Again, in 1877-78, when the incomplete state of the distributaries on the Patná Canal prevented the enforcement of a water rate, the total area irrigated rose to nearly 300,000 acres, of which 64,000 acres were free. The following rates have been fixed for the future:—For the *kharíf* or winter crop, R. 1. 8. (3s.) per acre; for the *rabí* or spring crop, Rs. 2. 4. (4s. 6d.) per acre. These rates apply only to leases for three years, and a certain proportion of the total village area must be assessed in each case. For annual leases, the rate is Rs. 2. 8. (5s.) per acre for both *kharíf* and *rabí*. In the year 1877-78, out of a total irrigated area of 288,596 acres, 149,894 acres were *kharíf* and 138,702 *rabí*. The total assessment for that year amounted to £15,000, but only £5965 was collected. Navigation is gradually developing in a satisfactory manner. In 1877-78, a total length of 87 miles was open for traffic; the receipts from tolls were £2677; the tonnage of boats is returned at 82,000 tons, valued at £128,000. The following is the balance-sheet for the year 1877-78:—Water rates, £5965; navigation, £2677; miscellaneous, £1487; total income, less refunds, £10,054; maintenance, £21,083; management, £4083; total working expenses, £25,166, showing a deficit of £15,112. The expenditure on capital account in the year was £169,132.

Sonágáon.—Large village in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 38′ N., and long. 78° 45′ 30″ E., 13 miles west of

Wardhá. An ancient fair takes place every June and October, in honour of the image of the god Murlídhar. The fort was built a century ago by an ancestor of the present Málguzárs.

Sonah.—Town and sulphur springs in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—*See* SOHNA.

Sonai.—Town in Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 23′ N., and long. 74° 54′ E., about 24 miles north by east of Ahmednagar town. Pop. (1872), 5254. Post office.

Sonái.—Important navigable channel in Nowgong District, Assam, which issues from the Brahmaputra, and, after a winding course in a south-westerly direction, finally falls into the Kalang, itself a similar offshoot from the Brahmaputra. It contains 6 feet of water all the year round, and the current is sluggish.

Sonái.—Hill stream in Cáchár District, Assam, which rises in the Lushái Hills, and flows due north into the Barák at Sonámukh, the headquarters of the timber trade.

Sonákhán.—Estate in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; 60 miles south-east of Biláspur town; comprising two small fertile villages, surrounded by hills. Náráyan Sinh, the chief, rebelled in 1857, and was executed, and his estate confiscated. The tenantry withdrew in a body, and the tract was left a desert, until, some years ago, part was taken as a waste-land grant by a European gentleman. The village ot Sonákhán lies in lat. 21° 31′ N., and long. 82° 37′ E.

Sonámganj (or *Sunámganj*).—Village with river trade in Sylhet District, Assam; situated on the left or south bank of the Surmá river, opposite the confluence of a stream flowing down from the Khásí Hills. The exports are rice, limestone, dried fish, and *tezpát* or bay-leaves; the imports—cotton goods, salt, sugar, spices, etc. The Bengal registration returns for 1876-77 show an export of 6600 *maunds* of jute. The *thánú* or police circle of Sonámganj has a population (1872) of 60,519.

Sonámukhí.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal; recently transferred from Bánkurá District. Lat. 23° 18′ 20″ N., long. 87° 27′ 15″ E. Formerly the site of a commercial residency and of an important factory of the East India Company, where numbers of weavers were employed in cotton-spinning and cloth-making. The introduction of English piece-goods led to the abandonment of these industries, the native fabrics not being able to compete with the imported European article; and from that time the prosperity of this place has declined. Police station. Pop. (1872) under 5000.

Sonápur.—Market village in Kámrúp District, Assam. Lat. 26° 16′ 20″ N., long. 91° 40′ 10″ E. A considerable centre of local trade, conducted by Márwárí merchants.

Sonápur.—Village in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 6′ 30″ N., long. 84° 50′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1597, residing in 328 houses. A

decaying seaport, but formerly of importance. Its trade (with that of Mansurkota) has been absorbed by the rising port of Gopálpur.

Sonárgáon.—The ancient Muhammadan capital of Eastern Bengal, but now an insignificant village, called Painám, in Dacca District, Bengal; situated about 2 miles from the Brahmaputra, in lat. 23° 39′ 45″ N., and long. 90° 38′ 20″ E. The village is completely concealed in a grove of palms and other trees, and is surrounded by a deep muddy ditch, originally a moat. It was formerly famous for the manufacture of a fine description of muslin. In the vicinity of Sonárgáon are the ruins of several mosques, but the place does not appear to have ever had any pretensions to architectural grandeur. Being the residence of the Musalmán governors, who were generally sons of the reigning king, this village was frequently the centre of rebellion; and it was here that Azím Sháh, the son of Sikandar, proclaimed his independence, and invited the poet Háfiz to his court. The town gave its name to one of the three great *sarkárs* or Provinces into which Muhammad Tughlak divided Eastern Bengal in 1330. So long as Sonárgáon remained the capital, it was a place of considerable trading importance, and formed the terminus of the Grand Trunk Road made by Sher Sháh.

Sonbarsá.—Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated 10 miles north-east of Ballia. Pop. (1872), 7162.

Sonepat.—Municipal town in Delhi District, Punjab.—*See* SONPAT.

Songarh.—Hill fort in Baroda State, Guzerat, Bombay; situated on a hill to the west of the once walled town of Songarh. It was originally seized from the Bhíls, some families of whom still hold *jágírs* in connection with it. In the lower part of the enclosed space are the ruins of what must once have been a handsome palace.

Songarh.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £200; of which £50 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £7 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Songír.—Municipal town in Khándesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 8′ N., and long. 75° 4′ E., 12 miles north of Dhulia. Pop. (1872), 4618. Songír, like Dhulia, has passed through the hands of the Arab kings, the Mughals, and the Nizám. From the Nizám it came to the Peshwá, who granted it to the Vinchurkar, from whom it fell into the hands of the British Government in 1818. Not long after the occupation of Songír by the British, the Arab soldiers, of whom there were many at that time in Khándesh, made an attempt to recover the town; and did actually take possession of a portion of it, but were eventually repulsed and completely defeated. Songír has a local reputation for its brass and copper ware. Coarse woollen blankets and cotton cloths are also woven. Post office.

Sonmiáni.—Town and harbour in Baluchistán; situated in lat. 24° 27′ N., and long. 66° 39′ E., 70 miles south of Belá, and 52 north-west of Karáchi (Kurrachee) in Sind. Mr. Hughes, in his *Baluchistán*, gives the following account of the place, which he describes as 'small and insignificant':—

'It is seated at the northern extremity of a kind of bay, or large inlet of the sea. The harbour, situated also at the northern head of the bay, which, says Carless (who wrote upon this place many years ago), has been formed by the Purāli river, is a large, irregular inlet, spreading out, like that at Karáchi, in extensive swamps, and choked with shoals. It is at the southern portion of the Bay of Sonmiáni, Pottinger believes, that the port of Alexander, so named by Nearchus, was situate, and that here his fleet, according to Arrian, remained for a considerable period. The channel leading into the harbour is extremely narrow, and has a depth of 16 or 17 feet at high water in the shallowest part; but it shifts its position every year, and vessels of any size could not navigate it without great difficulty until it had been buoyed off. Inside there are 6, 7, and even 10 fathoms in some places; but towards the town the channels become shallow, and the trading boats cannot approach nearer than a mile.'

The water supply is very bad. Trade now unimportant, though once considerable. Oil is manufactured from the *shira* or *shangruf* plant. During the recent military operations in Southern Afghánistán, Sonmiáni has been used as a port of debarkation for stores and munitions of war, especially mules from Persia.

Sonpat.—Municipal town in Delhi District, Punjab; situated in lat. 28° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 3′ 30″ E., 25 miles north-west of Delhi city. Pop. (1868), 12,176, namely 4361 Hindus, 6236 Muhammadans, 11 Síkhs, and 1568 'others.' A town of great antiquity, said to have been founded by the earliest Aryan settlers. Popular tradition identifies it with one of the '*pats*' demanded by Yudisthira, in the *Mahábhárata*, from Duryodhána as the price of peace. Picturesquely placed on the side of a small hill, evidently formed from the debris of buildings. The Jumna probably once flowed close beneath the walls. A terra-cotta figure of the sun, dug up in 1866, is pronounced by General Cunningham to be at least twelve centuries old. Several ancient buildings, none of architectural interest. Exports of coarse sugar to Rohtak and Bhawáni; of cotton and red pepper to Delhi and Bághpat. Police station, *sarái* (native inn), school-house. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £869, or 1s. 3¼d. per head of population (13,637) within municipal limits.

Sonpur.—Village in Sáran District, Bengal; perhaps the most widely known place in the District; situated in lat. 25° 41′ 35″ N., and long. 85° 12′ 50″ E., at the confluence of the Gandak and the Ganges. Famous for its great fair, held for ten days during the full-moon of

Kártik. This is probably one of the oldest *melás* in India, its origin being said to be contemporaneous with Ráma and Sítá. It was at Sonpur that Vishnu rescued an elephant, who had gone to drink, from the clutches of the crocodile. A temple was subsequently erected here by Ráma, when on his way to Janakpur to fight for Sítá. Sonpur is considered to be a spot of exceptional holiness. The fair, attended by great numbers of persons, lasts a fortnight; but is at its height two days before, and two days after, the bathing in the Ganges. The chief articles of trade are elephants and horses and piece-goods. But the great attraction of Sonpur is the annual race meeting, the occasion of one of the most agreeable social gatherings for Europeans held throughout India. A large camp is pitched in a magnificent grove, which is especially reserved for this entertainment. There is also a fine race-course and stand, and the races last five or six days.

Sonpur.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, lying between 20° 40′ and 21° 10′ N. lat., and between 83° 20′ and 84° 18′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Sambalpur District, on the east by Rairákhol, on the south by Bod, and on the west by Patná. Pop. (1872), 130,713 (of whom 109,655 were Hindus), residing in 760 villages or townships and 34,580 houses, on an area of 906 square miles, of which 556 were cultivated in 1877, while of the portion lying waste 90 square miles were returned as cultivable. Density of population, 144·27 per square mile. The country generally is flat, with isolated hills rising abruptly here and there. The Mahánadi flows through the centre of the State, receiving the waters of the Tel and Suktel; to the north, the Jira river divides Sonpur from Sambalpur. The State contains no large forests, and such as exist do not yield any valuable timber. The soil is poor and sandy, but, owing to the numerous population, well cultivated. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and cotton are also grown. Coarse country cloths constitute the only manufacture; and though iron-ore is found in many parts, no mines are regularly worked. The State contains no made roads; but the line which branches off from the Ráipur and Sambalpur road at Sohelá, southward to Cuttack, is continued through Sonpur, along the right bank of the Mahánadi; and from Bod, 30 miles below Sonpur, there are bungalows every 10 miles. In the Mahánadi, just opposite Sonpur, a dangerous rapid impedes navigation; nevertheless, by this river and the Tel, timber is floated down, and in good years rice and oil-seeds are also exported. Sonpur was originally a chiefship subordinate to Patná; but was constituted a separate State by Madhukar Sá, about 1560, and from that time formed one of the cluster known as the 'Athára Garhját,' or Eighteen Strongholds. The succession has continued regularly from Madan Gopál, the first Rájá, down to Níládri Sinh Deo Bahádur, Rájá in 1877, who obtained the title of 'Bahádur' for his

services to the British Government in the field. The family is Chauhán Rájput. Estimated gross revenue, £1800; tribute, £500. In 1872, 404 male persons not exceeding 20 years of age, and 174 persons above that age, one of whom was a female, were returned as able to read and write, or under instruction. The climate of Sonpur resembles that of Sambalpur, and is considered unhealthy.

Sonpur. — Chiefship in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; south-west of Haraí; comprising 49 villages. The chief is a Gond, and pays to Government an annual quit-rent of £1. Sonpur village lies in lat. 22° 21′ N., and long. 79° 3′ E.

Sonsarí.—Chiefship in Chánda District, Central Provinces; 14 miles north-north-east of Wairágarh; comprising 21 villages. The chief is a Halbá. Sonsarí village lies in lat. 20° 31′ N., and long. 80° 15′ E.

Sooree.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal.—*See* SURI.

Soráb.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore. Area, 271 square miles, of which 126 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 67,073, namely 64,385 Hindus, 2611 Muhammadans, 68 Jains, and 9 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £19,983, or 5s. 7d. per cultivated acre. The woodland scenery is marked by peculiar patches of forest called *káns*, on which grow groves of magnificent timber-trees, demarcated by sharp lines from the surrounding country. These *káns* are caused by corresponding depressions in the substratum of laterite, which permit a surface-soil of great depth to gather; whereas, over the rest of the country, the mould is only about 4 inches deep. Among the forest trees, the valuable wild pepper-vine grows in large quantities. The hollow valleys supply rich rice lands, and the inhabitants are generally prosperous. Wild animals are numerous, especially leopards. Iron-ore is largely smelted in certain localities.

Soráb ('*The Cow of Plenty*').—Municipal village in Shimoga District, Mysore; situated in lat. 14° 22′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 7′ 55″ E., on the right bank of the Dandavati river, 46 miles north-west of Shimoga town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 1364. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £168; rate of taxation, 2s. 5d. per head. The principal centre of the industry of sandal-wood carving, for which the country round is celebrated. The *gúdigars* or carvers chiefly manufacture boxes, caskets, and cabinets, which they cover with minute and complicated reliefs. The native designs consist of vegetation and scroll-work, interspersed with figures from the Hindu pantheon; but any European pattern can be copied to order. The workmanship is considered finer than that of Bombay or Canton, and commands a high price.

Sorashtra (*Sorath*).—Old name of KATHIAWAR.

Soron.—Municipal town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 11,182, consisting of 9554 Hindus, 1627 Muhammadans,

and 1 Christian. Situated on the Burhganga, or ancient bed of the river Ganges, in lat. 27° 53′ 40″ N., and long. 78° 47′ 35″ E., on the Bareilly and Háthras road; distant from Etah town 27 miles north-east. A place of some pretensions as a trading mart; but chiefly important for its religious associations, and as the scene of frequent pilgrim fairs. Devout Hindus from all parts of India, after visiting MUTTRA (Mathurá), come on to Soron to bathe in the Burhganga, which here forms a considerable pool, lined with handsome temples and *ghát*s. Half the Hindu population consists of Bráhmans, distinguished by wearing a scarlet *pagrí* (head-dress). They derive a large income from donations sent from all parts of India, and also from annual tours among their pilgrim clients, as well as from the numerous festivals. A fine masonry bridge connects Soron with the opposite village of Badariya, and was supplemented in 1873 by a screw-pile bridge. The pool of the Burhganga consists of stagnant dirty water, except during the rains, when it becomes a running stream. *Pípal* trees surround the temples, which number 60 in all. Several handsome *dharmsálas* or rest-houses for pilgrims, exquisitely carved in Agra stone, attest the wealth and piety of pilgrims from Gwalior and Bhartpur. Police station, post office, Government charitable dispensary, and school.

Soron is a place of great antiquity, originally known as Ukala-kshetra; but after the destruction of the demon Hiranyakasyapa by Vishnu in his boar *avatár*, the name was changed to Sukara-kshetra. A mound, bearing the title of *kilá* or fort, marks the site of the ancient town. The temple of Sítá Rámjí and the tomb of Shaikh Jamál form the only buildings now standing upon this mound; but large antique bricks strew the ground on all sides, and the foundations of walls may be traced throughout. The temple was destroyed during the fanatical Musalmán reign of Aurangzeb, but restored a few years since by a wealthy Bania, who built up the vacant interstices of the pillars with plain white-washed walls. The architectural features of the pillars resemble those of the Kutab at Delhi. Numerous inscriptions in the temple bear date from 1169 A.D. downward. Considerable trade in grain. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1074; from taxes, £865, or 1s. 3⅛d. per head of population (13,658) within municipal limits.

Sounth.—State and town in Rewa Kántha, Bombay.—*See* SUNTH.

South Kánara.—District in Madras.—*See* KANARA, SOUTH.

South Marhattá Jágírs, The.—A group of Native States in Bombay, under the political superintendence of the Kolhápur Agency, comprising the following States:—SANGLI, JAMKHANDI, MIRAJ (Senior and Junior Branch), KURANDWAR (Senior and Junior Branch), MUDHOL, and RAMDURG. The *jágírs* of Sángli, Jámkhandi, Miraj (2), and Kurandwár (2) belong to Bráhman chiefs of the Patwardhan family; their territories are divided into a large number of isolated patches

—one portion of the Sángli State being close to the southern frontier of the Bombay Presidency, whilst another is on the river Bhima, near Pandharpur. The total population (1872) of the South Marhattá Jágírs is about 610,000. The lie partly in the old Hindu Province of Maháráshtra, partly in that of the Karnatic; and the division of language on which these old Divisions were founded is still maintained, for of the population about 380,000 speak Kanarese and about 228,000 speak Marathí. Prior to 1812, the power of the Patwardhan family had for some years excited the jealously of the Peshwá, who had attempted to strip them of their rights; in that year, however, they were taken under the protection of the British Government.

South-Western Frontier Agency.—The name formerly given to the CHUTIA NAGPUR TRIBUTARY STATES (vol. ii. p. 469), Bengal.

Spiti.—An extensive Subdivision of Kángra District, Punjab, consisting of an outlying Thibetan valley among the external ranges of the Himálayan system, lying between 31° 42′ and 32° 58′ N. lat., and between 77° 21′ and 78° 32′ E. long. It has the form of a rough triangle, its apex lying at the point of convergence of the Kanzam ridge and the Outer Himálayas, while the transverse ridge of Mánirang, dividing Kángra District from Bashahr State, forms the base. The tract thus enclosed has an estimated area of 2100 square miles. The whole valley is drained by the Li or river of Spiti, from whose banks the spurs of the surrounding mountain ranges rise almost immediately, leaving only a narrow gorge, though which the central stream runs in a series of rapid cascades. The higher peaks of the main chain have an elevation of from 20,000 to 23,000 feet above sea level; and even the villages stand at from 12,000 to 14,000 feet. Scarcely any vegetation clothes the bare and rocky slopes; yet the scenery is not devoid of a rugged grandeur, while the deep and peculiar colour of the crags often gives most picturesque effects to the otherwise desolate landscape. Red and yellow predominate in the rocks, and contrast finely with the white snowy peaks in the background and the deep blue sky overhead. The villages stand for the most part on little flat plateaux, above the cliffs of the Spiti river; and their white houses, dotted about among the green cultivated plots, afford rare oases in the desert of stony debris which covers the mountain-sides.

History.—The history of Spiti commences with the first formation of the kingdom of Ladákh, after which event the valley seems for awhile to have been separated from that government, and attached to some other short-lived Thibetan principality. About 1630 A.D., it fell into the hands of Sinagi Námgyál, King of Ladákh, who allotted it to his third son, Tenchbog. Soon after, it became a part of the Gugé principality, which lay to the east, in what is now Chinese Thibet; and it did not again come under the dominion of Ladákh till about 1720. In

that year the King of Ladákh, at the conclusion of a war with Gugé and Lhásá, married the daughter of the Lhásan commander, and received Spiti as her dower. Thenceforward the valley remained a province of Ladákh; but, from its remote and inaccessible position, it was practically left for the most part to govern itself, the official sent from Leh usually disappearing as soon as the harvest had been gathered in and the scanty revenue collected. Spiti was always liable to be harried by forays; but the people, being an unwarlike race, preferred the payment of black-mail to the armed defence of their barren valley. After the Síkhs had annexed the neighbouring principality of KULLU in 1841, they despatched a force to plunder Spiti. The inhabitants, in accordance with their usual tactics, retreated into the mountains, and left their houses and monasteries to be plundered and burnt. The Síkhs retired as soon as they had taken everything upon which they could lay hands, and did not attempt to annex the valley to Kullu nor to separate it from Ladákh. In 1846, however, on the cession of the trans-Sutlej States to the British after the first Síkh war, the Government, with the object of securing a road to the wool districts of Cháng Tháng, added Spiti to Kullu, giving other territory in exchange to the Mahárája of Kashmír. In the same year, General (then Captain Cunningham and Mr. Vans Agnew demarcated the boundary between Spiti, Ladákh, and Chinese Thibet. Since that date, the valley has been peacefully governed by British officials, with the assistance of the native hereditary rulers, who still practically manage all internal affairs after their own fashion.

Population.—The population of Spiti, in 1868, amounted to only 3024 persons, almost exclusively of Thibetan origin. The religion is Buddhism of a purer type than that which prevails in Lahúl, and extensive monasteries often crown the lower ridges overhanging the villages. The endowments consist of tithes of grain, voluntarily offered by the people. In appearance, the population belong to the Mongolian stock, and their dress is characterised by the love of colour conspicuous among that division of mankind. Polyandry does not now exist, as in the adjacent region of Lahúl; the same object being attained by the peculiar practice of primogeniture, by which only the eldest son marries, while the younger sons become monks. Crime is rare; but both chastity and sobriety are almost unknown. The language in use is pure Thibetan. The chief village and immemorial seat of government is DANKAR.

Agriculture and Commerce.—The principal crop is barley. The hereditary native head-man of Spiti bears the title of Nono. Commerce hardly exists, as the people dislike leaving their native valley; and trade could only be carried on by caravans, like those which manage the business between Lahúl and Central Asia. The exports include cereals, manufactured cloth, *yáks,* and *yáks'* tails. The imports com-

prise salt, tobacco, madder, and tea from Lhásá; sheep's wool, turquoises, amber, and wooden vessels from Kunáwár; coarse cloth, dyes, and soda from Ladákh; and iron from Mandi and Kunáwár. A handsome breed of ponies bred in Spiti is exported to Chamarti.

Administration.—For administrative purposes, Spiti forms part of the Kullu *tahsíl* of Kángra District, under the Assistant Commissioner at Nagar on the Beas (Biás). The Nono ranks as an honorary magistrate with limited powers. The Government revenue amounts to only £75. There is no school in the valley; but two boys from each local subdivision (of which there are 5) attend the Government school at Kielang in Lahúl. The climate is warm in summer, but intensely cold during the winter, when its natural severity is aggravated by piercing winds from the snowy ranges. Snow begins to fall in December, and lies on the ground till April, to a depth of about 2½ feet. Slight showers occur in July and August, though the valley lies beyond the regular influence of the monsoon. The health of the people is excellent; goitre and cretinism are unknown. Messrs. Schlagintweit give the mean temperature of the Upper Spiti valley at 17° F. in January, 38° F. in April, 60° F. in July, and 39° F. in October.

Spiti.—River in Kángra District and Bashahr, Punjab, draining the whole Subdivision of SPITI. Rises at the converging angle of the Kanzam and Outer Himálayan ranges, at the base of a peak 20,073 feet above the sea, and after a south-easterly course of 10 miles, receives the Lichu, a stream of equal volume, carrying off the surface waters of the mountains on either side of the Kanzam Pass; flows eastward for 13 miles, washing the foot of the Outer Himálayas; then turns south-eastward till it reaches Máni, at the foot of the southern hills; thence sweeps eastward and leaves Spiti by a narrow gorge at its north-east corner; in Bashahr, it pursues a southerly direction, and finally joins the Sutlej (lat. 31° 42′ N., long. 78° 39′ E.) after a total course of 120 miles, with an average fall of 60 feet per mile. The greater part of the valley drained by the Spiti and its tributaries consists of barren rocks, through which the various torrents have cut themselves deep channels. The chief affluent of the Spiti is the PIN.

Srávan Belgola.—Temples in Hassan District, Mysore.—*See* SHRAVAN BELGOLA.

Sravasti.—Ruins in Gonda District, Oudh.—*See* SAHET MAHET.

Srígonda (*Shrígonda*).—Chief town of the Srígonda Subdivision of Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated about 28 miles south by west of Ahmednagar city, in lat. 18° 41′ N., and long. 74° 44′ E. Pop. (1872), 6175. Post office.

Srígovindpur.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 5456. Situated in lat. 31° 41′ N., and long. 75° 32′ E., on the river Rávi, 18 miles south-east of Batála. Place of great sanctity

amongst the Síkhs, having been founded by Guru Arjun, who bought the site and built a town, which he called after his son and successor, Har Govind. The proprietary rights are still held by his descendant, Guru Jawáhar Sinh, who lives at Kartápur in the Jalandhar Doáb. Exports of cotton and sugar, the latter in large quantities, by river to Sukkur on the Indus. Police station, post office, *sarái* (native inn), good school. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £259, or 11d. per head of population (5531) within municipal limits.

Sríharikot.—Insulated tract of alluvium and marine deposit, in Nellore District, Madras. It lies between the Pulicat Lake and the sea, stretching from Coromandel to Dugarázpatnam; and it contained in 1871, 13,578 inhabitants, residing in 2064 houses. The tract is covered with firewood jungle. Sríharikot is chiefly interesting as being the home of the Yánadis, a wild tribe, of whom there are several thousands in the District. They are apparently of Dravidian origin, and speak a dialect of Telugu. When they first came under the notice of the English authorities in 1835, they lived upon roots and jungle produce; but they have been partially reclaimed since then, and now maintain themselves by cutting firewood. They have greatly increased in number during the last thirty years, since a code of special regulations was introduced to ameliorate their condition.

Seríkákulam.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* CHICACOLE.

Seríkánta.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, lying in lat. 30° 57′ N., and long. 78° 51′ E., enclosed by a great bend of the Bhágirathi river. A sharp and lofty peak, 20,296 feet above sea level. Thornton says it is visible from Saháranpur, a distance of 105 miles in a straight line.

Srínagar (or *Surjyanagar*, 'The City of the Sun').—Capital of the Native State of Kashmír in the Western Himálayas. Picturesquely situated in the 'Happy Valley' of Kashmír, about midway between its two ends, and close to the hills which bound its north-western side, on the banks of the river Jhelum, in lat. 34° 5′ 31″ N., and long. 74° 51′ E. The city extends for about 2 miles along the banks of the river, which divides it into two nearly equal portions, connected by seven bridges. Dr. Ince (in his excellent *Kashmír Handbook*, 1876) states that the average breadth of the river is about 88 yards; its depth is variable, but the average during the summer season is about 18 feet. It banks were formerly faced with long rectangular blocks of limestone, some of which are of large dimensions, and handsomely carved; but much of the embankment has crumbled or been washed away. There are several fine stone *gháts* or landing-stairs; and the city is also intersected by several canals, the principal of which are the Sunt-i-kut, the Kut-i-kut, and the Náli-már.

Srínagar is built at an elevation of about 5276 feet above the sea;

but is surrounded by low swampy tracts, which render it unhealthy. The population numbers about 150,000,—20,000 being Hundus and the remainder Musalmáns,—living in about 20,000 houses, which are mostly built of wood, three or four stories high, with pent roofs overlaid with earth. Fires are frequent, and often very destructive. Dr. Ince, who was civil surgeon at Srínagar in 1864 and 1865, thus describes the general appearance of the city:—'The public buildings are few. The principal of them are the *bára-darí*, palace, fort, gun-factory, dispensary, school, and mint; also some ancient mosques, temples, and cemeteries, which the student of Kashmírian history may study with advantage. The streets are generally narrow, and some of them are paved with large and irregular masses of limestone; they are all, however, very dirty, and unfit to be visited by ladies. There are several *bázárs* or market-places in different parts of the city, one of which, called the Mahárájganj, has been lately built for the conveni ence of visitors, in which all the manufactures peculiar to Kashmír can be readily obtained. There are several large mansions on its outskirts, chiefly occupied by the great shawl merchants and bankers; some of them exhibit beautiful specimens of trellised woodwork, and in other respects are very tastefully fitted up.'

There is a famous poplar avenue, which is the 'Rotten Row' of Srínagar. It was planted by the Síkhs, and is quite straight; about $1\frac{1}{8}$ mile in length, and 56 feet in average width. Dr. Ince states that in 1865 it contained 1714 trees, of which 1699 were poplars and 15 *chenars*.

The *Takht-i-Suláimán*, or 'Throne of Solomon,' is a hill overlooking the city, from which a good view is obtained. On the top is a fine old stone temple, called by the Hindus *Sankar Achárya;* it was originally Buddhist, and was built by Jaloka, son of Asoka, about 220 B.C.

The *Hari Parbat*, or 'Fort Hill,' is an isolated hill on the northern outskirts of the city. It is about 250 feet high, and is crowned by the fort. A wall surrounds the hill, in which the principal gateway, called the *Kátí Darwáza*, is surmounted by a Persian inscription. Both wall and fort were built by Akbar about 1590 A.D., at a cost of a million sterling. The length of the wall is about 3 miles; its height, 28 feet.

The *Sher Garhi*, within the city, contains the city fort and the royal palace. It is 400 yards long by 200 wide; its walls are about 22 feet high; and the interior contains the state apartments, Government offices, and barracks. The *Jamá Masjíd*, or cathedral-mosque, which is also in the city, is a very large four-sided building, with an open square in the centre and a wooden steeple in the middle of each side; the roof of the surrounding cloister is supported by wooden pillars, each formed of a single *deodar* tree about 30 feet high.

The *Dal*, or City Lake of Kashmír, which has been sung by Moore in *Lalla Rookh*, lies on the north-eastern side of the city. It is about 5 miles long, 2½ miles broad, with an average depth of about 10 feet. Its surface in many parts is covered with the famous Kashmírian 'floating gardens.' The Shalimár Bagh, well known as the scene of Moore's *Light of the Harem*, is a beautiful pleasure-ground laid out by Jahángír; the *Nazib Bagh*, or 'Garden of Bliss,' another picturesque pleasure-ground, is said to have been first planned by Akbar; and there are several other gardens of similar character in the environs of Srínagar.

The local government of the city is vested in a Viceroy or Governor, assisted by a Financial and Revenue Commissioner, a Judge of the Chief Court, an Accountant-General, a Superintendent of Shawls, and a Judge of the Civil Court. The present Governor resides in the *Sher Garhi.*

Srínagar.—Town in Narsinhpur District, Central Provinces; on the Umar river, 22 miles south-east of Narsinhpur town. A considerable place in the Gond period, and the quarters of a large garrison under the Marhattás, but now decayed. Estimated pop. 1500.

Srínagar.—*Parganá*, in Kheri District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Dhaurahra *parganá*, from which it is separated by the Chauka river; on the east by Tambaur *parganá* of Sítápur; on the south by Kheri *parganá*, the river Ul marking the boundary line; and on the west by Bhur *parganá*. Area, 229 square miles, of which 120 are returned as under cultivation; pop. (1869), 75,840, viz. 68,259 Hindus and 7581 Muhammadans. Number of villages, 146, chiefly belonging to the *tálukdárs* of Oel and Mahewa. A few villages are owned by the *kanúngo* of Kheri.

Srínagar.—*Tahsíl* of Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; embracing the whole District, and consisting of a wild mountain country along the valley of the Alaknanda. Estimated area, 5500 square miles, of which 209 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 310,282. Land revenue, £9558; total Government revenue, £10,640; rental paid by cultivators (estimated), £19,116.

Srínagar.—Principal village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl;* situated in the valley of the Alaknanda, in lat. 30° 13′ N., and long. 78° 48′ 15″ E. A place of small importance, only noticeable as the most populous village in the District. The administrative headquarters are at PAURI. Several Hindu temples; general air of decay and poverty. Once the capital of the Garhwál Rájás. Heat oppressive in summer, owing to the position in an enclosed valley.

Srínagar.—Decayed town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the Nowgong (Naugáon) road among the Mahoba Hills, 65 miles south of Hamírpur town. Pop. (1872), 4448.

Founded by Mohan Sinh, illegitimate son of Chhatar Sál, the Bundela chief, about 1710 A.D. Mohan Sinh built a fort on a hill overlooking the town, where was situated the mint from which the Srínagarí rupees were issued, still the commonest coinage throughout Southern Bundelkhand. He also constructed the Bára Tál, a fine tank, containing a picturesque little island, now greatly out of repair. Sacked during the Mutiny of 1857 by the outlaw Despat, and has never since recovered its prosperity. Ruins of fine houses occur in every part, wholly or partially uninhabited. Police station, post office, *parganá* school, *bázár*. Declining manufacture of brass idols.

Sringiri (or *Sringa-giri;* lit. 'Hill of Sringa').—Sacred village in Kádúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 25′ 10″ N., and long. 75° 17′ 50″ E., on the left bank of the Tunga river. Pop. (1871), 1661. According to local tradition, the spot where Vibhándaka Rishi performed penance, and where Rishya Sringa, a celebrated character of the *Rámáyana*, was born. In the 8th century, the famous Sivaite reformer Sankar Achárjya settled here, bringing, it is said, from Kashmír the image of Sárad-amma or Saraswatí. (But see INDIA, vol. iv.) The spiritual throne which he founded has been handed down by unbroken succession to the present day. The present Sringiri Swámí, named Narasinha Chári, the *jagat gúrú* of the Smarta Bráhmans, is a man of great learning. His claims to sanctity are admitted by all votaries of Siva. It is his habit to be absent for many years on tours to the farthest corners of India; and the enormous contributions collected from the pious during these expeditions are lavishly expended on hospitality and charitable works. The *mágani* of Sringiri, comprising a fertile tract in the upper valley of the Tungá, forms an ancient endowment of the *máth* or conventional establishment over which the *gúrú* presides; and a monthly grant of £100 is allowed in addition by the Mysore State. The village consists of a single long street, with a loop on one side encircling the small hill of Sringa-giri, on which stands the temple of Sárad-amma, the tutelary deity of the place. Several large festivals are held during the year, each attended by from 3000 to 10,000 people. On these occasions all classes are fed at the expense of the *máth;* cloths and bodices are distributed to the women, and pieces of money to the men. For list of 29 successive heads of the monastery, see H. H. Wilson's *Religion of the Hindus*, I. 201, ed. 1862. In this list Sankara only stands second.

Srínivaspur.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 331 square miles, of which 82 are under cultivation; pop. (1871), 73,933, of whom 69,479 are Hindus, 4443 Muhammadans, 1 Jain, and 10 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9750 per acre. Much of the area is occupied with forest-clad hills.

Srínivaspur.—Municipal village in Kolár District, Mysore; 14 miles

by road north-north-east of Kolár town; headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 2843; municipal revenue (1874-75), £62; rate of taxation, 5d. per head. Formerly known as Pápan-halli; but the name was changed by the *díwán* Purnaiya, who called it after his son Srínivasa Murti. Rough bits for horses and other small articles of iron are manufactured; there is also an arrack distillery.

Srírámpur.—Subdivision and town in Húglí District, Bengal.—*See* SERAMPUR.

Srírangam (*Seringham*).—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 51′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 43′ 55″ E., 2 miles north of Trichinopoli city, and almost in the centre of the island of Srírangam, formed by the bifurcation of the Káveri (Cauvery) into two branches at a point about 11 miles west of Trichinopoli. Pop. (1871), 11,271, residing in 2275 houses. The southern branch of the river retains the name of Káveri, while the northern channel is known as the Coleroon (Kollidam).

The town chiefly owes its fame to its great temple dedicated to Vishnu. The temple and the town are indeed almost conterminous, the greater portion of the houses having been built inside the temple walls. The shrine has been fully described by Fergusson in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture.* He makes it an illustration of the way in which many South Indian temples have grown around a small original shrine, so that the finest parts of the whole structure are in the wrong place, that is, outside; and the absence of a general design spoils the effect of the details. 'The temple which has been most completely marred by this false system,' writes Mr. Fergusson, 'is that at Srírangam, which is certainly the largest, and if its principle of design could be reversed, would be the finest in the South of India. Here, the central enclosure is small and insignificant, and except that its dome is gilt, has nothing to distinguish it from an ordinary village temple. The next enclosure, however, is more magnificent. It encloses the hall of 1000 columns which measures some 450 feet by 130 feet. The number of columns is 16 in front by 60 in depth, or 960 altogether. They consequently are not spaced more than 10 feet apart from centre to centre; and as at one end the hall is hardly over 10 feet high, and in the loftiest place only 15 or 16 feet, and the pillars spaced nearly evenly over the floor, it will be easily understood how little effect such a building really produces. The pillars are, however, each of a single block of granite, and all carved more or less elaborately. A much finer portico stretches across the court from *gopura* to *gopura;* the pillars in it are more widely spaced, and the width of the central aisle is double that of those on the sides, and crosses the portico in the centre, making a transept; its height, too, is double that of the side aisles. It is a pleasing and graceful architectural design; the other is

only an evidence of misapplied labour. The next four enclosures have nothing very remarkable in them, being generally inhabited by the Bráhmans and persons connected with the temple. Each, however, has or was intended to have four *gopuras*, one on each face; and some of these are of considerable elaboration. The outer enclosure is practically a *bázár*, filled with shops, where pilgrims are lodged and fed. The wall that bounds it measures 2475 feet by 2880 feet; and had its *gopuras* been finished, they would probably have surpassed all others in the South to the same extent as these dimensions exceed those of any other known temple. The northern *gopura*, leading to the river and Trichinopoli, measures 130 feet in width by 100 feet in depth; the opening through it measures 21 feet 6 inches and twice that in height. The four jambs or gate posts are each of a single slab of granite more than 40 feet in height, and the roofing slabs throughout measure from 23 to 24 feet. Had the ordinary brick pyramid of the usual proportion been added to this, the whole would have risen to a height of nearly 300 feet. Even as it is, it is one of the most imposing masses in Southern India, and perhaps because it never was quite finished, is in severe and good taste throughout. Looked at from a distance, or in any direction whence the whole can be grasped at once, these 14 or 15 great gate towers cannot fail to produce a certain effect; but even then it can only be by considering them as separate buildings. As parts of one whole, their arrangement is exactly that which enables them to produce the least possible effect that can be obtained either from their mass or ornament. Had the four great outer *gopuras* formed the four sides of a central hall, and the others gone on diminishing in three or four directions to the exterior, the effect of the whole would have been increased in a surpassing degree. To accomplish this, however, one other defect must have been remedied; a gateway even 150 feet wide in a wall nearly 2000 feet in extent is a solecism nothing can redeem; but had the walls been broken in plan, or star-shaped like the plane of Chalukian temples, light and shade would have been obtained, and due proportion of parts, without any inconvenience. But if the Dravidians ever had it in them to think of such things, it was not during the 17th and 18th centuries, to which everything in this temple seems to belong.'

During the annual festival in December or January, one yard is covered by a large *pandal* (shed), erected every year at a cost of about £300. In booths round this *pandal*, which is handsomely decorated, are to be seen various figures of gods and other mythical personages. Among the groups of images, that of a very sallow-faced Collector administering justice, surrounded by peons, with a prisoner in front of him, is never omitted. Running round this enclosure is a street in which there are ordinary dwelling-houses and shops. The Madras

Municipal Act (III. of 1871) was extended to Srírangam in 1871. Since that time, the municipality have done much towards the general conservancy of the place, and have built a hospital close to the southern gate of the temple, at which a large number of in-patients and out-patients are treated.

For the part played by Srírangam as a fortress, in the wars of the Karnatic, the reader is referred to the article on TRICHINOPOLI DISTRICT.

Sríráńgapatnam. — Town in Mysore District, Mysore. — *See* SERINGAPATAM.

Srírangavarapukot.—Headquarters of a *tálu*k of the same name in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 6′ 34″ N., long. 83° 11′ 11″ E.; pop. (1871), 5078, inhabiting 1074 houses. Seat of a sub-magistrate.

Srí-surjya-pahár. — Isolated hill in Goálpára District, Assam; supposed from its name ('Hill of the Sun') to have been used as an observatory by Hindu astronomers of old.

Srívaikuntham (*Srivigundam*). — Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 8° 38′ 20″ N., long. 77° 57′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 7059, inhabiting 1832 houses. The fort here was occupied till recently by a special caste of Súdras called Kottai Vellálars, who had peculiar customs. There is also a fine temple.

Sríwardhán.—Town in Janjira State, Bombay. Lat. 18° 4′ N., long. 73° 4′ E.; pop. (1872), 7409.

Subalgarh.—Village and ruined fort in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 44′ N., and long. 78° 15′ E., on the Hardwár road, 10 miles north-west of Najíbábád. Extensive fortifications surround the decayed town, which consists of little else but a mass of ruins.

Subankhálí.—Market village in Maimansinh District, Bengal; situated on the Jamuná river, 44 miles west of Nasírábád, with which it is connected by a tolerably good road. A considerable export and import trade is carried on. The village contains an indigo factory.

Subansirí.—Great river in the north-east of the Province of Assam, which contributes to form the main stream of the Brahmaputra. Its source and upper course, like those of the Brahmaputra itself, are entirely unknown; but it is supposed to rise far up among the mountains of Thibet, and to flow for a long distance in an easterly direction before it turns south to break through the northern mountain barrier of the Assam valley. It enters the District of Lakhimpur from the Mirí Hills, and, still flowing south, divides the Subdivision of North Lakhimpur into two almost equal portions. Before it reaches the Brahmaputra, it forms, together with the channel of the Lohit, the large island known as the MAJULI *char*, and finally empties itself into the main stream in Síbságar District. In the hills the bed of the river is

greatly broken up by rocks and rapids; but in the plains it is navigable by steamers as far up as Pátálipáni, 16 miles from the Subdivisional town of North Lakhimpur. Below this place it is nowhere fordable, but it is crossed by three ferries. Its principal known tributaries beyond the British frontier are the Kamlápáni, Siplu, Gáiu, and Náobhogá. Within Lakhimpur District it is joined by the Dulung, Dirpái, Sáuldhuá, Sumdiri, Rangánadi, and Dikrang. From time immemorial the bed of the Subansirí has yielded gold-dust, washing for which affords a scanty living to a class known as Hanuáls. In former times the banks of this river furnished abundant supplies of caoutchouc, but these have now been exhausted by indiscriminate destruction of the trees.

Subara (or *Siobára*).—One of the petty Bhíl (Bheel) States in Khándesh, Bombay.—*See* Dang States.

Subargum.—Hill in Dárjíling District, Bengal; one of the principal peaks in the Singálilá range. Situated in lat. 27° 9′ 45″ N., and long. 88° 3′ 15″ E., upon the eastern frontier of the District, bordering upon Nepál. Height above the sea, 10,430 feet.

Subarnárekhá (*'The Streak of Gold'*).—River of Bengal; rises 10 miles south-west of Ránchí in Lohárdagá District, and flows towards the north-east, leaving the main plateau in a picturesque waterfall called Hundrughágh. From this point it forms the boundary with Hazáribágh, its course being eastwards to the triple boundary junction with Mánbhúm District. Hence it bends southwards into Singbhúm, whence it passes into the State of Morbhanj, and afterwards enters Midnapur District from the north-west. It traverses the jungle western tract of this District till it reaches Balasor, through which it flows in a tortuous southern course, with gigantic windings east and west, until it finally falls into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 21° 34′ 15″ N., and long. 87° 23′ E., after a course of 317 miles, having drained an area of 11,300 square miles. The chief tributaries of the Subarnárekhá in Chutiá Nágpur are the Kánchí and Karkari, both joining it from the west. The river is navigable by country craft about 16 miles from its mouth, up to which point it is also tidal. During the rains, rice boats of 2 tons burden can make their way far into Morbhanj. The banks of the Subarnárekhá are high and steep on the outer curve of the bends, and flat and sandy on the inner; the bed is studded with islands. The bordering country is cultivated to within a few miles of the sea, where it becomes jungle. The Subarnárekhá is nowhere fordable within Balasor District; it is embanked here in its lower reaches.

Subarnárekhá.—Port consisting of a demarcated portion of the river of the same name; situated in lat. 21° 34′ 30″ N., and long. 87° 22′ E., about 12 miles from the sea by water route, or about 6 miles in a direct line. In early times, this seems to have been by far the most

important port on the Orissa coast; and it is specially interesting as the site of the first maritime English settlement in Bengal, which was founded on the ruins of the earlier Portuguese factory at PIPPLI. But of these colonies no traces now exist, and the river has so often changed its course that it is impossible to identify the precise spot of their location. In January 1875, Captain Harris, the Conservator of Orissa Ports, stated that the entrance to the Subarnárekhá from the east had closed up, and that the only channel now remaining was to the south-west of the shoals in the mouth, which are almost bare at low tide. The port is unsafe during the south-west monsoon, as it presents a dead lee shore with breakers right across the mouth, the sole obstacle to navigation; but within the bar the Subarnárekhá possesses a magnificent deep channel. The imports in 1873-75 were *nil;* the exports were valued at only £2554. The port is principally visited by fishing boats, which in fair weather issue out in squadrons, and sail down as far as Purí. No regular survey of the Subarnárekhá river itself, as distinguished from its entrance, has yet been made.

Subáthu. — Hill cantonment and sanatorium in Simla District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 58′ N., and long. 77° 2′ E., on a tableland at the extremity of the Simla range, overlooking the Ghambar river. Lies just above the old road from Kálka to Simla, 9 miles from Kasauli and 23 from Simla station. Held as a military post since the close of the Gúrkha war in 1816. Barracks exist for a whole regiment. Small fort above the parade-ground, formerly of military importance, now used as a guard-room. Deficient water supply; excessive heat in summer. Cholera broke out in 1872. Branch of American Presbyterian Mission maintains an excellent school, in receipt of a grant from Government. Elevation above sea level, 4500 feet.

Subeha.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the river Gumti, on the east by Jagdispur *parganá* in Sultánpur, on the south by Inhauna *parganá* in Rái Bareli, and on the west by Haidargarh *parganá.* Area, 88 square miles, or 56,467 acres, of which 30,783 acres are cultivated; pop. (1869), 58,727, viz. 54,037 Hindus and 4690 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £6610. This tract was formerly held by the Bhars, who were expelled about 900 years ago by the Muhammadans in the time of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd. Subsequently it was taken possession of by Bais Kshattriyas. Of the 86 villages comprising the *parganá*, 22 are held in *tálukdárí* (owned by Muhammadans), 3 in *zamíndárí*, and 61 in *pattidárí* tenure.

Subeha.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 38′ N., and long. 81° 34′ E., 52 miles north-west of Sultánpur, and 30 miles east of Bára Bánki town, near the river Gumti. Several tanks and masonry wells, bi-weekly market, manufacture of country cloth,

school, police, post and registry office, and fort. Pop. (1869), 2754; number of houses, 691. Subeha is supposed to have been a Bhar town prior to the Muhammadan invasion. The principal landed family, that of the late Chaudhari Sarfaráz Ahmad, traces descent from one of the generals of Sayyid Sálár. But little is known of the family till 1616 A.D., when Shaikh Násir was appointed Chaudhari of *parganá* Subeha by the Emperor Sháh Jahán. His descendants divided the *parganá* amongst themselves, but the office of Chaudhari remained undivided; and in 1792, Chaudhari Imám Bakhsh commenced to absorb all the separate properties into his own estate. Chaudhari Sarfaráz Ahmad continued this career of aggrandizement, and was granted an estate in Rái Bareli District as a reward for his exertions.

Suchin.—State and town in Surat District, Bombay.—*See* SACHIN.

Sudámánpur.—Village in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 2 miles north of the Ganges. Named after its founder Sudámán Sinh, a Janwár Kshattriya, who settled here about 500 years ago. Pop. (1869), 2140.

Sudamra Dhandhulpur.—One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 28 villages, with 6 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £2052; of which £238 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £74 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sudásna.—Native State in the Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay. Estimated pop. (1872), 5365. It is situated in the Náni Márwár Subdivision of Mahi Kántha, and its western boundary marches with that of Pálanpur. The principal agricultural products are millet, wheat, and Indian corn.

The chief traces descent from Umar Sinh, a son of Ráná Punja of Dánta, on whose death he obtained Sudásna and afterwards certain other villages, and a fourth share of transit dues paid by pilgrims visiting the shrine of Amba Bhawání. This tax is collected as the pilgrims pass through his territory. The present (1876-77) chief is Thákur Partáb Sinh, a Bárad Rájput of the Pramár clan. He is fifty-seven years old, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £1182; and pays a tribute of £104 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £36 to the Rájá of Edar. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession.

Sudhárám (*Noákhálí*).—Principal town and headquarters of Noákhálí District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Noákhálí *khál*, a natural water-course, which gives its name to the District. Lat. 22° 48′ 15″ N., long. 91° 8′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 4752. Sudhárám is so called after Sudhárám Mazumdár, a resident landlord, who dug the only large tank in the place. The town now lies about 10 miles inland, but it was once on the sea-coast. During the rains, the tidal bore sometimes rushes up the river even farther than Sudhárám. Good roads to the

Pheni river, to Ráipur, and Begamganj. The town contains a Roman Catholic chapel, and numerous mosques and tanks. Municipal income (1874-75), £239, 3s. 1½d.; police force, 15 men.

Sufed Koh.—Mountain range in Afghánistán.—*See* SAFED KOH.

Suháwal.—State and town in the Bághelkhand Agency, Central India.—*See* SOHAWAL.

Suigám.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay; bounded on the north and east by Wáo State, on the south by Chádchat State, and on the west by the Salt Desert or Rann. The State is about 20 miles long by 8 miles broad, and covers an area of 161 square miles; it contained a population in 1872 of 10,104 persons. The country is flat and open; the soil produces poor crops of the common grains. A scanty supply of brackish water is found at a depth of 15 feet. The chief's family is of the same origin as that of the Ráná of Wáo. The territory was about 420 years ago granted to Pachánji, the youngest son of Ráná Sangájí, and, like Wáo, is subdivided amongst a numerous independent *bháyád* or brotherhood. Like their brethren of Wáo, the chiefs of Suigám were noted freebooters, and in the early part of the present century gave every assistance to the Khosás in their predatory raids. But since 1826, when they entered into an agreement with Colonel Miles, they have become peaceful cultivators of the soil. The present (1876-77) chief of Suigám is Thákur Bhupat Sinh, a Rájput of the Chauhán clan; he is five years of age. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £1000.

Suigám.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Guzerat, Bombay. Lat. 24° 9′ N., long. 71° 21′ E.

Sujánpur.—Municipal town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 19′ N., and long. 75° 40′ E., at the foot of the hills, in the corner of the Bári Doáb below Núrpur. Pop. (1868), 6177, consisting of 2442 Hindus, 3483 Muhammadans, 179 Síkhs, and 73 'others.' Distant from Gurdáspur town 23 miles north-east, from Pathánkot 4 miles north-west. Exports of rice, turmeric, and hemp to Amritsar (Umritsur) and Lahore, principally by boats upon the Rávi. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £279, or 10¾d. per head of population (6556) within municipal limits.

Sujánpur Tira.—Town in Kángra District, Punjab; situated on the bank of the Beas (Bías), in lat. 31° 50′ N., and long. 76° 32′ E., 15 miles above Nádaun. Pop. (1868), 3275. Palace of the ancient Katoch dynasty crowns a height overlooking the town. Commenced in 1758 by Abhi Chánd, great-grandfather of Sansar Chánd (*see* KANGRA DISTRICT). Subsequently enlarged by his son and grandson, the latter of whom founded the town of Sujánpur. Sansar Chánd completed the building, and held his court here. The palace, a residence of regal

proportions, and highly finished in point of workmanship, bears the name of Tira, whence the double title of the place. Picturesque town, having a handsome old parade ground, a grassy plain surrounded by noble trees. Local trade centre of considerable importance; colony of gunmakers and jewellers, introduced by the Katoch princes from Gujrát and Delhi respectively.

Sukesar.—Mountain in Sháhpur District, Punjab.—*See* SAKESWAR.

Suket.—Native State under the Political Superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 31° 13′ 45″ and 31° 35′ 25″ N. lat., and between 76° 49′ and 77° 26′ E. long., on the north side of the Sutlej river, which separates it from the cis-Sutlej Hill States. Area, 420 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 44,180; supposed gross revenue in the same year, £7380, of which £1100 is paid as tribute to the British Government. The country of Suket was united to that of Mandi until about the year 1200 A.D. The separation was followed by frequent wars between the two States, with ever-varying success. The country eventually fell under Síkh supremacy, which was exchanged for that of the British Government by the treaty of Lahore in 1846, and in that year full sovereignty was conceded to the Rájá, Agar Sen, and his heirs. A *sanad* conferring the right of adoption was granted in 1862. Rájá Agar Sen died in 1875, and was succeeded by his son Rudra Sen, who was born about 1828. Rájá Rudra Sen was deposed in 1878 in consequence of misgovernment. The State is now administered provisionally by two of his relatives, pending the election of a successor. The Rájá of Suket receives a salute of 11 guns. A small force is maintained of 40 cavalry and 500 infantry.

Suket.—Mountain range in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* JALORI.

Suketa.—The popular Anglicised form of Sáketa, one of the classical names borne by AJODHYA (*q.v.*), the ancient capital of Oudh. See General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, pp. 401–5 (Ed. 1871).

Sukheta.—River of Oudh, rising in lat. 27° 55′ N., and long. 80° 7′ E., and forming the boundary between Sháhjahánpur and Kheri Districts. It flows in a south-easterly direction for about 20 miles from its source, and turning to the south-west, enters Hardoi District, and falls into the Garra in lat. 27° 18′ N., and long. 80° 2′ E. Total length, about 84 miles. It becomes a torrent in the rains, and cuts off communication with Sháhjahánpur.

Sukhu-chak.—Town in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 24′ N., long. 75° 14′ E. Pop. (1868), 3408.

Sukkur (*Sakhar*) **and Shikárpur.**—Sub-District or Deputy Collectorate of Shikárpur District, Sind. Area, by Survey estimate, 1238 square miles; pop. (1872), 181,832, consisting of 126,394 Muhammadans, 54,985 Hindus, and 453 'others.' Bounded north and west by

the Frontier District, east by the Indus, and south by Lárkhána. Headquarters at SUKKUR TOWN. The country consists of a level plain, broken only at Sukkur by a low range of limestone hills. Highly cultivated in parts, and diversified by lakes and forests. The chief canals in the Sub-District are the Sindwá, the Begári, the Alíbahar, and the Sukkur. Irrigation is also effected by *léts* or floods. Game, abundant; fisheries, numerous; minerals, salt and saltpetre. Principal crops—*joár*, *bájra*, wheat, barley, rice, indigo, cotton, and tobacco. Figs, mulberries, apples, mangoes, dates, etc. are also grown. The commerce of the Sub-District centres in the two large towns of SHIKARPUR and SUKKUR. Annual fairs at Lakhi Thar, Jind Pír, Old Sukkur, Naushahro, and Jhali; the first of these is attended by from 20,000 to 25,000 persons. Total length of roads, 500 miles. Ferries, 24, of which 9 are across the Indus. Telegraph line from Sukkur to Shikárpur, and thence to Jacobábád. The total revenue of the Sub-District amounted in 1873-74 to £41,253, of which £36,297 was derived from imperial and £4956 from local sources. The land revenue, *abkári* or excise, and stamp duties furnish the chief items. The tenures obtaining in this Sub-District are the *maurúsi hári* (lit. 'hereditary cultivator') and the *pattidári*. The extent of land held in *jágír* is 16,000 acres. There are 3 municipalities in the Sub-District, viz. Shikárpur, Sukkur, and Garhi Yásin; their aggregate receipts in 1873-74 were £20,270. The police force numbers 523 officers and men. Shikárpur is the seat of the District and Sessions Judge, and Sukkur of the subordinate Judge. Two jails, viz. at Shikárpur and in the island fort of Bukkur. Number of Government schools, 32, with 2988 pupils. Normal and Anglo-vernacular school at Sukkur, and a high school at Shikárpur; 4 girls' schools; 5 Hindi-Sindi schools, with 1031 pupils. Three hospitals and a dispensary in the Sub-District.

Sukkur (*Sakhar*).—*Táluk* of the Sukkur and Shikárpur Sub-District, Shikárpur, Sind. Area, 279 square miles; pop. (1872), 60,223; total revenue (1873-74), £15,959.

Sukkur (*Sakhar*).—Town and headquarters of the Sukkur and Shikárpur Sub-District, Shikárpur District, Sind; situated in lat. 27° 42′ 0″ N., and long. 68° 54′ 30″ E., on the right or western bank of the Indus, opposite Rohri. Midway between these two towns lies the island fortress of BUKKUR, and a little southward the wooded island of Sádh Bela. Sukkur is connected by road with Shikárpur, 24 miles north-west. By the Indus, it has communication with Múltán (Mooltan) and Kotri. The newly opened line of the Indus Valley State Railway runs from Sukkur to Kotri, and so to the port of Karáchi (Kurrachee). The Indus has not yet (1880) been bridged; but a powerful steam-ferry keeps open communication with Rohri, on the opposite bank of the river, which is in direct connection by rail with Múltán and the Punjab.

Sukkur is also the terminus of the railway now in course of construction through the Bolán Pass. A range of low limestone hills, utterly devoid of vegetation, slopes down to the river; and it is on this rocky site that New Sukkur, as distinguished from the old town of the same name about a mile distant, is partly situated. Scattered about are the ruins of numerous tombs; and at the western side of the town, overlooking the river, is the lofty minaret of Mír Masum Sháh, erected, it is supposed, about 1607 A.D. Sukkur contains the usual public offices, with a civil hospital, dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, subordinate jail, postal and telegraph offices, travellers' bungalow, and *dharmsála*. It possesses, besides, a Freemasons' Lodge. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £10,545; expenditure, £9035. The town is well drained and clean. Pop.(1872), 13,318, of whom 6161 were Muhammadans, 6952 Hindus, 85 Christians, and 120 'others.' In 1834, the population was estimated at only 4000. The trade of Sukkur, both local and transit, is considerable, but no trustworthy details are available. Statistics of the traffic on the Indus appear to have been regularly kept from 1855-56 to 1861-62, by an officer of the late Indian Navy. In 1855-56, 600 boats proceeding up river with a total tonnage of 7750; and in 1861-62, 1232 with a tonnage of 20,232, discharged at Sukkur port. In the same years, 629 and 1714 boats left Sukkur with cargoes amounting to 8000 and 16,317 tons respectively. No returns seem to have been made between 1861-62 and 1865-66, but from the latter date they were carried down to 1867-68, after which they were discontinued altogether. In that year, 293 boats, with a tonnage of 5171, discharged at Sukkur; and 6167, with a tonnage of 96,362, proceeded from Sukkur. In 1855-56, the number of vessels proceeding down river and discharging at Sukkur was 2210, with a tonnage of 33,125; in 1861-62, 479, with a tonnage of 7694; and in 1867-68, 1580, with a tonnage of 24,739. In 1855-56 and in 1861-62, the number of vessels proceeding down stream from Sukkur was 2210 and 940, with a tonnage of 33,125 and 18,178 respectively; in 1867-68, the number of vessels rose to 6860, with a total tonnage of 114,358. The downward exports comprise silk, country cloth, raw cotton, wool, opium, saltpetre, sugar, dyes, and brass utensils. The upward exports include piece-goods, metals, wines and spirits, and country produce. There is a large local trade between Sukkur and Shikárpur. The town possesses no special manufacturing industries.

Old Sukkur seems to be a place of no great antiquity, though it contains the ruins of numerous tombs and mosques. Among the former is the tomb of Sháh Khair-ud-dín Sháh, which is said to have been erected about 1758 A.D. New Sukkur owes its existence to the stationing of European troops here in 1839, at the time when Bukkur fort was made over to the British; and it was rapidly converted into a prosperous and busy town. In 1845, after a fatal epidemic of fever among the

garrison, New Sukkur was abandoned as a station for European troops; but it promises to be of still greater importance than before, as the centre of railway communication with Karáchi, Múltán, and Kandahár. Little is known of Old Sukkur in the days of Afghán rule; but it is believed to have been ceded to the Khairpur Mírs some time between the years 1809 and 1824. In 1833, it was the scene of a conflict between Sháh Shuja-ul-Mulk, the dethroned Duráni sovereign, and the Tálpur Mírs, the latter being defeated. In 1842, Old Sukkur, together with Karáchi (Kurrachee), Tatta, and Rohri, was yielded to the British in perpetuity.

Suláimán Hills.—Mountain range in Afghánistán and the Punjab, forming the historical boundary of India on the west. They stretch from lat. 31° 35′ 39″ to 31° 40′ 59″ N., and from long. 69° 58′ 39″ to 70° 0′ 45″ E., thus bordering the whole Deraját in Bannu, Derá Ismáil Khán, and Derá Ghází Khán Districts. The highest peak, the Takht-i-Suláimán, nearly due west of Derá Ismáil Khán town, has two summits, respectively 11,295 and 11,070 feet above sea level. Throughout the range presents a comparatively straight line to the British frontier. The outer hills consist of several parallel ranges, having a direction due north and south. Beyond them rises the main chain, sloping away gradually on the Afghán side toward the valley of Kándahár. The Suláimáns are generally rocky and precipitous, completely bare of trees upon their sides, and wanting in water among the ravines at their feet. Numerous passes thread the range, held by independent tribes in alliance with the British Government. The Kuram forms almost the only river of any importance, taking its rise amongst their dry summits. Length, from north to south, about 350 miles.

The following description is condensed from Colonel MacGregor's account. The Suláimán range is thrown off to the south from the Allah-koh ridge between Kábul and Ghazní, and proceeding southwards without a break, forms the system of mountains of Eastern Afghánistán and Baluchistán. The whole of the eastern slopes of the range drain into the Indus; while to the west, the drainage runs either into the Helmand, or is lost in the desert between Persia and Baluchistán. On the south, the lower slopes discharge their drainage into the sea. The principal spurs thrown off from the main range on the west are a range dividing Zurmat from Katawáz, and one which leaves the parent ridge south of Mount Chapar, and runs nearly west to the Sar-i-Bolán, which is thus a continuation of the Suláimán range. On the eastern or Indian side, the main offshoots are—a range dividing the drainage of the Kuram from Khost valley; a spur dividing Dáwar from Khost, which ends in British territory in Bannu District; the Wazíri range in its many branches; and the Surkh-koh or Kála-koh, over which runs the Sakhi Sarwár Pass.

Sulekere (lit. '*Courtesan's Tank*,' so called from a local legend).—Lake in the east of Shimoga District, Mysore; artificially formed in ancient times by damming up the waters of the Haridra river, a tributary of the Tungábhadrá. Its margin is about 40 miles in circumference; and, next to the Cumbum (Kambham) tank in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, it is probably the finest reservoir in Southern India. It receives the drainage of 20 square miles, and is capable of irrigating 20,000 acres. In modern times, the work has been greatly neglected; but its embankment is still firm and uninjured, and the sluices have recently been repaired.

Sullivan's Island.—An island in the Mergui Archipelago, attached to Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Lat. 10° 40′ to 11° N., and long. 97° 58′ to 98° E. Extreme length, 17 miles; extreme breadth, 6 miles. A favourite haunt of the Selung tribe.

Sultánganj.—Considerable village in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated close to the banks of the Ganges, near the railway station of the same name. Lat. 25° 14′ 45″ N., long. 86° 47′ 6″ E.; pop. (1872), 4247, viz. 2269 males and 1978 females. The river-borne trade and the railway have largely contributed to the commercial importance of this village. Sultánganj is conspicuous for two great rocks of granite, one of which, on the river bank, is crowned by a Musalmán mosque. The second and larger one is occupied by a temple of the Gháibnáth Siva, and is a place of great holiness in the eyes of Hindus. The river here strikes against a cliff of stone, and a spot where this occurs is always believed to be the scene of the loves of the river nymph and the god Siva. In the rainy season, the rock is isolated, and the stream rushes past with great violence. During the fair weather, many of the Hindus who live in the neighbourhood receive instruction at the temple. Few Hindus of any position pass the place without making offerings to the idol.

Sultánpur.—A British District in the Rái Bareli Division or Commissionership of Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 26° 39′ and 27° 58′ N. lat., and between 81° 36′ and 82° 44′ E. long. Area, after recent transfers, 1701 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for all changes of boundary, 1,000,336 souls. Bounded on the north by Faizábád (Fyzábád), on the east by Jaunpur, on the south by Partábgarh, and on the west by Rái Bareli. Extreme length of District, 80 miles; greatest breadth, 38 miles. The administrative headquarters are at SULTANPUR TOWN.

Changes in Jurisdiction.—The District, as at present constituted, differs entirely from that which existed prior to 1870. The old District comprised the 12 *parganás* of Inhauna, Jagdíspur, Subeha, Rokhá Jais, Simrauta, Gaura Jámun, Mohanganj, Amethi, Isauli, Tappa Asl,

Sultánpur, and Chánda, with a total area of 1570 square miles, and a population, in 1869, of 930,023 souls. In the redistribution of Oudh Districts, which took place in 1869-70, four *parganás*—viz. Inhauna, Rokhá Jais, Simrauta, and Mohanganj—were separated from Sultánpur and attached to Rái Bareli, while Subehá *parganá* was transferred to Bára Bánki. On the other hand, the *parganás* of Isauli, Sultánpur, Baraunsa, Aldemau, and a part of Surharpur, which formerly belonged to Faizábád, were transferred to Sultánpur, altering the total area to 1701 square miles, and the population to 1,000,336.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of a gradual and scarcely perceptible slope from north-west to south-east, the surface of the country is generally level, being broken only by ravines in the neighbourhood of the rivers by which its drainage is effected. The scenery is of a varied character. Many spots on the Gumti are exceedingly pretty; but, for the most part, the country along both banks of that river is a dreary, black, and ravine-cut tract, occasionally relieved by mango groves. The centre of the District, along the high-road from Lucknow to Jaunpur, consists of highly cultivated and well wooded villages; while, in strong contrast to this fertile tract, in the south are widespread arid plains, and swampy *jhíls* and marshes.

The principal river is the Gumti, which enters Sultánpur from Bára Bánki at its north-western corner, and after flowing an exceedingly tortuous south-easterly course through the centre of the District, passes into Jaunpur District in the North-Western Provinces. During the dry months, the breadth of the channel is about 200 feet, and its depth about 12 or 13 feet, with a current of about 2 miles an hour, and a discharge of about 5000 cubic feet per second. During seasons of flood, however, its depth occasionally rises to upwards of 48 feet, with a current of 4 miles an hour, and a discharge, at Sultánpur town, of upwards of 100,000 cubic feet per second. Of minor streams, the most important are the Kándu, Píli, Tengha, and Nandhia. The Kándu takes its rise in a morass near Ráipur village. In the upper or western portion of its course, it is a shallow streamlet, known as the Naiya. Near Jagdíspur, it becomes a small river, with rugged banks, and is then called the Kándu, under which name it finally empties itself into the Gumti. The Píli *nadi* becomes in the rains a considerable stream, but at other times consists of a string of disconnected *jhíls* and swamps, which cover a great portion of the south of Chánda *parganá*. The Tengha, so called from a village of the same name in *parganá* Amethi, discharges itself into the Chamrauri, a tributary of the Sái. The Nandhia *nadí* first appears near the village of that name in *parganá* Tappa Asl, and ultimately unites with the Tengha at the point where that stream falls into the Chamrauri. Both the Tengha and the Nandhia are streams of some import-

ance, as their channels are deep, though narrow, and form the outlet for the superfluous water of extensive series of *jhíls*. One of these series, known as *jhíl* Lodhai, commences near the village of Bhalgáon, and stretches through Goawán to Náráyan, a distance of 13 miles.

There is now no forest-covered tract in Sultánpur District, but sixty years ago a wide expanse of jungle is said to have extended from the residence of the Rájá of Amethi quite up to the Lucknow road; and the Bhadaiyán jungle, which after the Mutiny occupied upwards of a thousand acres, is said to have been the remains of an extensive forest, patches of which are still to be found in villages far removed from Bhadaiyán. The only tree-covered tracts of spontaneous growth at the present day are the stunted *dhák* jungles, which are only of use for fuel. A substitute for forest timber exists in the large and noble groves with which the District is plentifully studded. The trees most in favour for groves are the mango, *jamún*, and *mahuá*. The *mahuá* is also often found alone, or in clumps of two or three, in open spots; as also are the *bel*, *káitha*, and *ním*. Grand old solitary trees of immense magnitude, the banian, the *pákar*, and the *pípal*, planted perhaps in the days of Bhar supremacy, form here and there a prominent feature in a village landscape; and the cotton-tree and the *dhák* are at one season of the year rendered conspicuous for a long distance by the brilliancy of their profusion of blossoms. The tamarind and the palm, which affect damp and feverish tracts, are comparatively rare in Sultánpur District. The *bábul* is common everywhere. The *sissu* and the *tún* are only found in the civil station, or in avenues along the roadsides. The only mineral is *kankar* limestone. Wild animals are very few in number, chiefly wolves, *nilgái*, wild hog, deer, and antelope. Small game, such as the hare, wild goose, partridge, quail, and wild duck, are common; and fish are abundant in the rivers, *jhíls*, and large tanks.

History.—At the time of the invasion of Oudh by Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, Mahmúd's lieutenant, Sultánpur fared for a time better than its neighbours, Jais and Jaunpur. Local traditions are unanimous in omitting all mention of Sayyid Sálár's name, and in representing the Bhars to have remained masters of this part of the country until they were expelled by Alá-ud-dín Ghori. It afterwards formed part of the Jaunpur kingdom, and on the downfall of that dynasty became incorporated with the Delhi Empire. In Akbar's reign, Sultánpur formed a *mahál* or fiscal division of the *subah* or Governorship of Oudh, with the exception of some tracts in the east and south, which were included within the *subah* of Allahábád. The District continued to be thus distributed between these two governorships for about two centuries, or until the time of the Nawáb Wazírs, when the limits of Oudh were extended by considerable transfers from Allahábád. The only note-

worthy incident in the history of the District since the British annexation of Oudh, is the revolt of the troops stationed at Sultánpur cantonment during the Mutiny of 1857. Anticipating an outbreak, the European ladies and children were despatched to Allahábád on the 7th June, which they ultimately succeeded in reaching in safety, but after a good deal of rough treatment and plundering at the hands of the villagers. On the 9th June, the troops, consisting of 1 regiment of Native cavalry and 2 of infantry, rose in rebellion, and fired on their officers, killing Colonel Fisher, the commandant of the station, and Captain Gibbings, besides two civilian officers, Mr. A. Block and Mr. S. Stroyan. Upon the restoration of order, Sultánpur cantonment was strengthened by a detachment of British troops; but in 1861, it was entirely abandoned as a military station.

Population.—The population of Sultánpur District, as at present constituted, after the recent transfers to and from Rái Bareli, Bára Bánki, and Faizábád, is returned at 1,000,336 persons, residing in 2526 villages or towns and 222,401 houses; average density of population, 588 per square mile. Classified according to sex, there are 507,293 males and 493,043 females; proportion of males in total population, 50·7 per cent. According to religion, there are 913,615 Hindus and 86,721 Muhammadans. There are no Christians returned in the Oudh Administration Report, from which the above figures are taken; but in the Census they are set down as numbering 83, all Europeans and Eurasians. Of Hindu castes, the most important, as also the most numerous, are the Bráhmans, who constitute 14 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District. Next, in both respects among the higher castes come the different Kshattriya clans, aggregating 8 per cent. of the population. Among low castes, the Ahírs are the most numerous, forming nearly 10 per cent. of the population, followed by the Chamárs and Pásís. Gújars are more common in Sultánpur than in other Districts of Oudh. Among the more skilful agricultural castes, Muráos are numerous, but Kurmís are remarkably few. Of the Muhammadans, who form less than one-tenth of the entire population, only about one-fourth are Sayyids, Shaikhs, Mughals, or Patháns; one-tenth is composed of converts from the principal Kshattriya clans, while the remainder comprise the lower orders of Musalmáns. Agriculturists form 56·9 per cent. of the population. The only town in the District containing a population exceeding 5000 is the civil station of SULTANPUR. In some parts, as in Mohanganj in the west, the villages are large, and situated at a distance from each other, the unsettled state of the country having induced the inhabitants to band themselves together for mutual protection. Farther east, on the other hand, villages are small, and hamlets abound; while in Chánda, in the extreme south-east, solitary houses are pretty thickly scattered over the *parganá*. The

principal religious shrines and fairs in the District are the following:—Sítákund, on the right bank of the Gumti, immediately below the civil station, is celebrated as the spot where Sítá is said to have bathed before accompanying her husband Ráma into his self-imposed exile. In commemoration of this event, a bathing fair is held twice a year in the months of Jaistha and Kártik, attended by 15,000 or 20,000 persons. No trade is carried on beyond the sale of sweetmeats. Dhopáp, in the village of Rájápati, on the Gumti, is a sacred, sin-cleansing part of the river. It was here that Ráma, on his return from the Lanka war, is said to have washed away the sin of having killed a Bráhman, in the person of Rávana, the demon king of Ceylon. Fairs are held here similar to those at Sítákund.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1701 square miles, 890 square miles, or 509,600 acres, are returned as under cultivation. The main feature in the agriculture of the District is the predominance of wheat and rice to the almost total exclusion of other cereals, such as maize, barley, etc. The following statement shows the acreage under the different crops; but the figures refer to the old District, before the recent transfers to and from neighbouring Districts, and do not include *do-fasli* land, bearing two crops. *Rabí* or spring crops—wheat, 148,092 acres; gram and *arhar*, 44,508; poppy, 5111; vegetables, 3205; oil-seeds, 133; miscellaneous, 48,247 acres. *Kharíf* or winter crops—rice, 201,233 acres; cotton, 5854; sugar-cane, 8056; indigo, 200; tobacco, 6261; *joár*, 4200; oil-seeds, 765; vegetables, 2235; miscellaneous, 10,323 acres. The average price for different food grains during the ten years ending 1870 is returned as follows:—Common unhusked rice, 31½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; common husked rice, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.; best husked rice, 9¾ *sers* per rupee, or 11s. per cwt.; wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; *joár*, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; gram, 24½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 7d. per cwt. In respect to the character of the landed tenures, Sultánpur is mainly a *tálukdárí* District, owned by Bachgoti and Rájkumar Kshattriyas in the east, by Amethia Kshattriyas in the centre, and by Kanhpuria Kshattriyas in the west of the District. Out of 1913 villages, comprised in the old District, 1022½ are returned as being held under *tálukdárí*, 232 under *zamíndárí*, 476 under *pattidárí*, and 182 under *bháyáchára* tenure.

Means of Communication, etc.—The principal road by which the District is intersected is the imperial high-road from Faizábád (Fyzábád) to Allahábád. It enters the District from the north, passes through the civil station, and, running nearly due south, crosses into Partábgarh District. It is metalled and bridged throughout. The other main lines of road, which, although unmetalled, are bridged where necessary, are as follows:—(1) The Lucknow and Jaunpur road, which enters the

District 2 miles east of Haidargarh, and leaves it 2 miles east of Chánda, —total length within Sultánpur, 70 miles, in the course of which it passes through Inhauna, Nihalgarh, and Saráyan; it leaves the civil station 2 miles to the south, but is connected with it by three separate lines: (2) the Sultánpur and Rái Bareli road: and (3) the Faizábád and Rái Bareli road. These roads constitute the local trunk lines, and throw out lateral branches in various directions. The branch lines have a total length of upwards of 100 miles. Besides the above there are numerous village tracks, which are at present only practicable for country carts, at once strong and lightly laden. The Gumti, although not much used for passenger traffic, affords a valuable highway for commerce, being navigable here by cargo boats of from 30 to 35 tons burden. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts across a corner of the District for a few miles in the extreme east.

Trade and Commerce, Manufactures, etc.—The principal articles of trade are grain, cotton, molasses, and native cloth. A considerable trade within the District is also carried on in cattle. Manufactures are quite unimportant. Coarse cotton cloth is woven by the Kori and Juláha castes. At Bandhuá, brass vessels are manufactured, and other rough metal work is carried on. Sugar and indigo are made on a very small scale in *parganá* Chánda. Under native rule, the manufacture of salt and saltpetre was largely carried on, but it has now been discontinued. All villages of any consequence have their own *bázárs*, either permanent or periodical. The latter are often nothing more than open-air markets, held on certain fixed days of the week; the former are sometimes large walled enclosures, bisected by a road, and lined with shops on either side. These local *bázárs* are small but important centres of commerce. Every village may be said to be affiliated to one of them, and each of them in turn is connected in its dealings with one or more of the larger emporia. The principal *bázárs* are as follows:—(1) Perkinsganj, at the civil station, founded shortly after the re-occupation of Oudh by Colonel Perkins, Deputy Commissioner. One of the newest, it is nevertheless one of the most flourishing markets in the District. A large trade is carried on here, and goods are brought for sale from a great distance. Its rapid growth has been favoured by the extremely convenient nature of its position. It is in close proximity to the District court-house, the *sadr tahsíl*, and the *thánás*; and is hence much frequented by persons whose business takes them to those places. It is also little more than half a mile from the right bank of the Gumti, so that if trade be slack here, unsold goods can be easily placed in boats and carried by water to Jaunpur. (2) Sukul *bázár*, in the village of Mawayya Rahmatgarh, in *parganá* Jagdíspur, founded about forty years ago by some members of a well-to-do Sukul (Bráhman) family. It shares with Perkinsganj the advantage of being near the Gumti.

(3) Gauriganj, called after the deity of that name, and founded by Rájá Mádho Sinh of Amethi about twenty-five years ago. It is situated in the village of Rájgarh a few miles east of Jáis. (4) Bandhuá, an old *bázár* on the Lucknow and Jaunpur road, close to Hasanpur. (5) Alíganj, in the village of Unchgáon, *parganá* Sultánpur, founded in 1795 by the *tálukdár* of Maniárpur.

Administration.—The total revenue, imperial and local, of Sultánpur District in 1872 amounted to £138,127, of which £115,720 was derived from the land tax. The expenditure in the same year was only £22,304. The District contains 8 civil and revenue, and 9 magisterial courts. For the protection of person and property, there is a regular police force of 379 officers and men, besides a village watch, numbering 2664. The daily average number of prisoners in jail during 1875 was 496. In 1875, the District contained in all 117 Government and inspected schools, attended by 4607 pupils. Of these, the principal is the High School at the civil station, which affords instruction in four languages, viz. English, Urdu, Hindi, and Persian, and teaches up to the standard of the entrance examination of the Calcutta University. Next in importance comes the town school of Jagdíspur. The charitable institutions consist of 4 dispensaries, which in 1875 afforded gratuitous medical relief to 13,177 persons; and a poorhouse.

Climate, etc.—The climate, judged by a tropical or semi-tropical standard, is mild, temperate, and healthy. From October to June westerly winds prevail; and during the first four of these months the atmosphere is dry, cold, and bracing, more particularly after rain, of which there is almost invariably a slight fall after Christmas. Towards the end of February the wind increases in force, the temperature becomes higher, and by the end of March, if not earlier, the hot winds set in. These, however, are much less trying in Sultánpur than in the more western Districts of Oudh. They do not begin till some hours after daybreak, and seldom continue long after nightfall, while they occasionally cease for several days together. In these intervals, which become more and more frequent as the hot weather progresses, a north-east wind takes their place. About the middle of June the rainy season commences, and, with occasional breaks of greater or less duration, continues till the end of September or beginning of October. During this period the wind scarcely ever shifts from the east. From the middle of October the weather gets cool and pleasant. The Report on the Meteorology of India for 1877 returns the average annual rainfall of Sultánpur for the previous ten years at 46·17 inches, the highest rainfall of any Oudh District. The average monthly temperature at the Sultánpur Dispensary in May 1875 was returned at 95·2° F., in July 89·3°, and in December 67·2°.

Medical Aspects. — The chief endemic diseases of Sultánpur are

fevers, and it is estimated that about 10 per cent. of the population suffers every year from some form of this disease. Dysentery and diarrhœa come next, being most prevalent at the end of the rains and the commencement of the cold season. Leprosy is also common, as well as other cutaneous disorders. Cholera epidemics occurred in 1869, 1870, 1871, and 1872; but from the latter year to 1877, the disease has not appeared in an epidemic form. Small-pox is never wholly absent from the District. It is most fatal during the dry hot weather until the rains set in, after which the mortality decreases till it reaches a minimum, about the middle of the cold season. Vaccinators have been employed by Government in recent years, but their efforts have as yet been confined to the town of Sultánpur and the surrounding villages. Cattle-disease (rinderpest), of a very fatal type, is always more or less prevalent in the District.

Sultánpur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sultánpur District, Oudh; situated between 26° 3′ and 26° 30′ N. lat., and between 81° 46′ and 82° 22′ E. long.; bounded on the north by Bikápur *tahsíl* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, on the east by Kadipur *tahsíl*, on the south by Ráipur *tahsíl*, and on the west by Musafarkhána *tahsíl*. Area, 504 square miles, of which 271 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 314,465, namely, Hindus, 282,239, and Muhammadans, 32,226; males, 159,832, and females, 154,633; average density of population, 624 per square mile. This Subdivision comprises the two *parganás* of Sultánpur and Sultánpur-Baraunsi.

Sultánpur.—*Parganá* of Sultánpur District, Oudh, stretching along the south bank of the Gumti. A rather dreary and dry expanse of country, with no large towns except Sultánpur, and intersected by ravines stretching down to the Gumti. Area, 246 square miles, of which 125 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 159,225, namely, Hindus, 138,357, and Muhammadans, 20,868. Number of villages, 401, of which 238 are held under *tálukdárí* and 163 under *zamíndárí* tenure. The most numerous class of the community are the Bráhmans, who number 22,789, but they only form a small proportion of the land-holding class. The Chámars come next in point of numbers with 19,829, and they also are not a land-holding class. The principal landed proprietors are the Bachgoti Kshattriyas, who own 94 *tálukdárí* and 96 *zamíndárí* villages. The Khánzáda Bachgotis, who are converts to Muhammadanism, own 111 *tálukdárí* and 19 *zamíndárí* villages.

Sultánpur.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh, and administrative headquarters of the District; situated on the right bank of the Gumti, in lat. 26° 15′ 50″ N., and long. 82° 7′ 10″ E. The original town, on the opposite or left bank of the river, is said to have been founded by Kusa, son of Ráma, and to have been named after him

Kusapura or Kusabháwanpur. It subsequently fell into the hands of the Bhars, who retained it until it was taken from them by the Musalmáns in the 12th century A.D. About seven hundred years ago, it is said that two brothers, Sayyid Muhammad and Sayyid Alá-ud-dín, horse dealers by profession, visited Eastern Oudh, and offered some horses for sale to the Bhar chieftains of Kusabháwanpur, who seized the horses and put the two brothers to death. This came to the ears of Alá-ud-dín Ghori, who determined to punish such an outrage upon the descendants of the prophet. Gathering a mighty host, therefore, he set out for Kusabháwanpur, and at length arrived and pitched his tents in Karaundi, then a dense jungle near the devoted town, on the opposite side of the river. Here he remained encamped for a year without gaining any advantage over the besieged; until, feigning to be weary of the fruitless contest, and anxious only to obtain an unmolested retreat, he had some hundreds of palanquins richly fitted up, and sent them as a peace-offering to the Bhars, pretending that they were filled with presents. The cupidity of the Bhars overcame their caution, and they received the pretended gifts within their walls. At a given signal, the palanquins were thrown open, and there sprang out a crowd of armed warriors, who, thus taking their enemies unprepared, speedily put them to the sword. Kusabháwanpur was reduced to ashes, and a new town called Sultánpur, after the title of the victor, rose upon its ruins. Sultánpur is often mentioned by Muhammadan chroniclers, but does not seem to have been a place of any great note, although at one time a flourishing little town, with several *mahallas* or wards. During the earlier half of the present century, a military station or cantonment was established by the native Government on the opposite bank of the river, and from this time the old town began to decline. In 1839, it was described as having no manufacture or trade, and with a population of only 1500. The place was finally razed to the ground during the military operations connected with the re-occupation of the Province after the Mutiny, in consequence of the inhabitants having been concerned in the murder of two British civilians at the time of the outbreak. The military cantonment was then occupied by a regiment of Native cavalry, and two of Native infantry, who rose in mutiny on the 9th June 1857, and, after firing on and murdering two of their officers, sacked the station, and proceeded to join the main body of the rebels. On the re-occupation of the Province, a detachment of European troops was stationed here for a time; but in 1861, all the troops, British and Native, were withdrawn, and the place ceased to be a military cantonment. The present civil station occupies the site of the old cantonments, and contained a population in 1869 of 5708. It has been much improved of late years; the unsightliness of the bleak ravines leading down to the river is hidden by the foliage of acacia trees, and the roads are lined

on either side with rows of mango and other shade-giving trees. A fine public garden, more than 10 acres in extent, has also been laid out. The principal public buildings are the court-houses, jail, police station, Government schools, charitable dispensary, and church.

Sultánpur.—Town in Kángra District, Punjab, and headquarters of Kullu *tahsíl;* situated in Kullu Proper, on the right bank of the Beas (Biás), in lat. 31° 58′ N., and long. 77° 7′ E., at an elevation of 4092 feet above sea level. Pop. (1868), 1100. Successively the seat of administration under the Kullu Rájás, the Síkhs, and the British. Perched upon a natural eminence, and once surrounded by a wall, so that it must have formerly been a place of great strength. Only two gateways now remain of the ancient fortifications. Large rambling palace, with sloping slate roof and cut-stone walls. Suburb inhabited by Lahúlis, who seek a refuge in Sultánpur from the severity of their own winter. Many shops owned by traders from Kángra, Lahúl, and Ládákh. Considerable transit trade between the plains and Leh or Central Asia; estimated value in 1862, £23,000, risen in 1870 to £150,000. Important fair every year in October, when 80 minor divinities come up to pay their respects at the shrine of Raghunáth Ji, the orthodox superior deity. *Tahsíl*, police station, post office, dispensary, *sarái* (native rest-house).

Sultánpur.—Saline tract in Gurgáon and Rohtak Districts, Punjab. Salt is manufactured from brine in wells, evaporated by solar heat in shallow pans. This tract lies on the banks of the great NAJAFGARH *jhíl*, and the principal works, both as to quantity and quality of produce, are in a cluster of villages on the borders of the two Districts. The total area of the saline region is 1565 acres, the number of wells 330, and the number of pans 3799. The quantity manufactured at all the wells in 1871-72 was 456,411 *maunds*, the greater portion of which was consumed in Delhi. Sultánpur salt also finds a market in the Upper Doáb, Rohilkhand, the eastern Punjab, and even in Oudh and Mírzápur. The demand increases yearly, and the prospects of the trade are excellent. The works could turn out, if necessary, an estimated quantity of 50,000 tons annually. The great drawback has hitherto consisted in the want of efficient transport, now afforded by the Rájputána State Railway.

Sultánpur.—Town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated 9 miles north-west of Saháranpur town. Pop. (1872), 3022. Founded by Sultán Bahlol Lodi about 1450 A.D. Noted for the number and wealth of its Jain or Sarangi merchants, who carry on a considerable trade in sugar and salt with the Punjab.

Sumdirí.—River in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which rises far up amid the Daphlá Hills, and, flowing south, ultimately falls into the Subansirí, a tributary of the Brahmaputra. Among its

own affluents, within British territory, are the Gariáján, Dhol, and Ghágar.

Sumerpur.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; standing on the open plain, in lat. 25° 50′ N., and long. 80° 12′ 5″ E., 9 miles south-east of Hamírpur town. Pop. (1872), 5599, consisting of 5152 Hindus and 447 Muhammadans. Anciently a place of some importance, as proved by the numerous mounds and ruins in the town itself and its vicinity. Pottery and coins have been found among the remains. Two ruined forts, respectively attributed by tradition to a Nawáb of Farrukhábád and Khamán Sinh, a Bundela chief in the middle of the last century. Police station, *tahsíli* school.

Sumesar (*Sumeswar*).—Hill range in Champáran District, Bengal, lying between 27° 20′ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 84° 5′ and 84° 39′ E. long. The frontier line with Nepál runs along the top of these hills, from the Kúdí *nadi* to the source of the Panchnad river. The total length of the chain is about 46 miles, the highest point being 2270 feet high, and the average height 1500 feet. In some places the range is inaccessible to man. The character of the surface varies, being rocky and barren in some places, while in others it is thickly studded with trees or covered with grass. At the eastern extremity, where the Kúdí *nadi* divides the range, is situated the pass leading into Deoghát in Nepál, through which the British army successfully marched in 1814-15. The other principal passes are the Sumesar, Kápan, and Harlan Harha.

Sumla.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £762; of which £96 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £10 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sumpter (*Sampthar*).—Native State in Bundelkhand.—*See* SAMTHAR.

Sunámganj.—Town in Sylhet District, Assam.—*See* SONAMGANJ.

Sunapur.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras.—*See* SONAPUR.

Sunda.—Town in North Kánara District, Madras.

Sundarapándiam (called after a Pándyan king, perhaps the 'Sender Bandi' of Marco Polo).—Agricultural village in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 36′ 30″ N., long. 77° 44′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 9290, inhabiting 2069 houses.

Sundarbans, The.—A vast tract of forest and swamp, forming the southernmost portion of the Gangetic Delta, Bengal; extends along the sea-face of the Bay of Bengal, from the estuary of the Húglí to that of the Meghná. Lat. 21° 30′ 40″ to 22° 37′ 30″ N., long. 88° 4′ 30″ to 91° 14′ 0″ E. The Sundarbans occupy an area of 7532 square miles; their extreme length along the coast is about 165 miles, and their greatest breadth from north to south about 81 miles. They are bounded on the north by the permanently settled lands of the Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás, Jessor, and Bákarganj; on the west and

east by the estuaries of the Húglí and the Meghná respectively; and on the south by the Bay of Bengal. No information exists showing the separate population of the Sundarbans, this tract being included in the Census Report (1872) with the adjoining Districts. The Sundarbans are administered by a special Commissioner.

Physical Aspects.—The country is one vast alluvial plain, where the continual process of land-making has not yet ceased. It abounds in morasses and swamps, now gradually filling up, and is intersected by large rivers and estuaries running from north to south. These are connected with each other by an intricate series of branches, and the latter in their turn by innumerable smaller channels; so that the whole tract is a tangled network of streams, rivers, and water-courses, enclosing a large number of islands of various shapes and sizes. It is bordered by a fringe of reclaimed land situated along the northern boundary, except in Bákarganj, where some of the clearings extend almost down to the sea. These reclaimed tracts are entirely devoted to rice cultivation. There are no 'villages' in the ordinary acceptation of the word; and the cultivators live far apart in little hamlets among their fields. The unreclaimed portion of the Sundarbans near the sea consists of impenetrable jungle and thick underwood, traversed by gloomy-looking water-courses. This thick jungle forms an admirable protection against the storm-waves which sometimes accompany cyclones in the Bay of Bengal. A list of the principal trees of the Sundarbans forests will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. i. pp. 304-309. The commonest of them is the *sundrí* (Heritiera littoralis), which abounds throughout the tract, and yields a good hard wood, used for building purposes, and for making carriage shafts, furniture, and boats. Most of the boats in the Sundarbans, and in the northern portions of the Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás, Jessor, and Bákarganj, are made, wholly or in part, of this tree. A total area of 1581 square miles in the Sundarbans has been demarcated as 'reserved forests;' and a considerable proportion of the remaining area has also been placed under the Forest Department as 'protected forests.' In 1877-78, the total forest revenue received was £17,400, as against charges amounting to only £3345. The aggregate amount of firewood and timber removed under cognisance of the officials was 9,103,250 *maunds*, on which toll was levied at the rate of 1 *ánná* (1½d.) per *maund* for *sundrí* timber, and 1 *pice* (1½ farthing) per *maund* for all other wood.

The physical features vary considerably in different portions of the Sundarbans, and the whole tract may be divided, according to these variations, into three sections—(1) a western part, including the country lying between the Húglí and the Jamuná and Kalindí rivers; (2) a central part, between the Jamuná and the Baleswar; and (3) the eastern

portion, extending from the Baleswar to the Meghná. The first and the last of these sections lie comparatively high, and the ground slopes downwards towards the central tract, which is low and swampy. In the western division, the water of the streams is, for the most part, salt; and the cultivated lands are surrounded by high embankments, dotted over with scattered clusters of huts. In the central marshy parts, there are no habitations, the cultivators never living on or near their fields; the water is not salt, and the embankments which surround the fields are lower than in the west. In the eastern portion, the lands being high, and the river water comparatively fresh, embankments are not necessary for the protection of the crops; the soil, too, is richer than in the western and central portions; and every well-to-do peasant has his granaries surrounded by a grove of palms and other trees.

It is impossible to give an account of the river system of the Sundarbans which shall be at once detailed and intelligible. The reader who desires special information regarding any of the estuaries of the Gangetic Delta, should consult Horsburgh's *Sailing Directions.*[1] We must satisfy ourselves with giving here the principal arms of the sea: they are, proceeding from west to east, the Húglí, Sattarmukhí, Jámirá, Matlá, Bángáduní, Guásubá, Ráimangal, Málanchá, Bára Pángá, Marjátá or Kágá, Bángará, Haringhátá or Baleswar, Rabnábád channel, and the Meghná river. The wild animals found in the Sundarbans are tigers (which are very numerous, and cause much havoc, often seriously interfering with the work of reclamation), leopards, rhinoceros, buffaloes, hogs, wild cats, deer of several varieties, porcupines, otters, monkeys, etc. Fish abound; and the python, cobra, and many other kinds of snake are found. Among the birds of the Sundarbans are adjutants, vultures, pelicans, kites, hawks, owls, doves, green pigeons, parrots, parroquets, jungle-fowl, kingfishers, jays, orioles, snipe, teal, pheasants, plover, partridges, and every description of water-fowl.

History, etc.—The name 'Sundarban' has been variously explained, some deriving it from *sundar*, beautiful, and *ban*, forest; others from the *sundrí*, which is, as already stated, the commonest tree in the jungles. *Sundrí* simply means 'beautiful,' but the word has been connected by some writers with *sindur*, 'vermilion,' the wood being of a reddish colour. A much less probable derivation traces the word to Chandrawíp, the name of an old *zamíndárí parganá;* while, according to another but altogether unlikely etymology, the tract took its name from the Chandabhandas, or Shandabhandas, a tribe of salt-makers. The extension of the name to the whole coast is modern. It has long been a disputed point whether the Sundarbans were formerly inhabited.

[1] London: 1852. Quoted, so far as the Sundarbans rivers are concerned, in vol. i. of the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, pp. 294-299.

Remains of buildings—houses and *gháts*—have been found in isolated parts of the jungle, showing that at any rate there were occasional settlers in those parts. But no evidence has yet been obtained to prove that the tract south of the present limit of cultivation was, as has often been asserted, at one time studded with towns or villages. It seems, on the contrary, probable that the northern limit has remained for about 400 years where it is at present. The question will be found discussed at some length in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. i. pp. 320, 321, 380-385). A very remarkable depression of the surface appears to have taken place at some not very distant period, large *sundrí* trees having been found (not only in the Sundarbans, but as far north as Sialdah, a suburb of Calcutta) standing as they grew, at depths varying from 10 to 30 feet below the present level of the country. Various attempts have been made to account for this circumstance, but it has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

Reclamation of the Sundarbans.—The earliest historical attempt to reclaim the Sundarbans was made by Khán Jahán, a Muhammadan chief, who died in 1459 A.D., and whose clearings at Bágherhat in Jessor remain to this day (*v.* JESSOR). The more recent attempts date from 1782, when Mr. Henckell, the first English judge and magistrate of Jessor, inaugurated the system of reclamation at present existing. He began by establishing market-places at Kachná, Chándkhálí, and Henckellganj, on the line of water communication between Calcutta and the eastern Districts. Henckellganj, named after its founder by his native agent, appears as Hingulgunge on the Survey maps. All these places were at that time in the forest, and Mr. Henckell's first step was to make clearings of the jungle; that done, the lands immediately around the clearings were gradually brought under cultivation. In 1784, Mr. Henckell submitted a scheme for the reclamation of the Sundarbans, which met with the approval of the Board of Revenue. The principal proposal was, that grants of jungle land should be made on favourable terms to people undertaking to reclaim them; and Mr. Henckell urged the scheme on the grounds that it would yield a revenue from lands then utterly unproductive, and that by the cultivation a reserve fund of rice would be formed against seasons of drought, the crops in the Sundarbans being very little dependent upon rainfall. In 1787, Mr. Henckell was appointed 'Superintendent for cultivating the Sundarbans,' and already at that time 7000 acres were under cultivation. In the following year, however, disputes arose with the *zamíndárs* who possessed lands adjoining the Sundarbans grants; and as the *zamíndárs* not only claimed a right to lands cultivated by holders of these grants, but enforced their claims, the number of grants began to fall off rapidly. Mr. Henckell showed the cause of this falling off, and expressed a conviction that if the

boundaries of the lands held by the neighbouring *zamíndárs* were only settled, the number of grants would at once increase again; but the Board of Revenue had grown lukewarm about the whole scheme, and in 1790 practically abandoned it. Several of the old grants forthwith relapsed into jungle. In 1807, however, applications which had for some time previously ceased began to come in again; and since that time, reclamation has steadily progressed, until, in 1872, the Commissioner of the Sundarbans estimated the area under cultivation at 695,733 acres, or 1087 square miles, of which 493,907 acres, or two-thirds of the whole, were reclaimed between 1830 and 1872. The number of estates in the latter year was 431, paying a land revenue of £41,757.

Population.—No separate Census has ever been taken of the population of the Sundarbans; the inhabitants being enumerated almost entirely in the TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAṢ, JESSOR, and BAKARGANJ DISTRICTS. The Hindus of the tract belong, almost without exception, to the low Súdra castes; the Muhammadans in the Bákarganj section, and in part of Eastern Jessor, are Faráizís, who are a turbulent and litigious sect, though not actively fanatical. The bulk of the population has come from the Districts in the north, but in the eastern portion (the Bákarganj Sundarbans) there is a considerable proportion of immigrant Maghs from the Arákán coast. As has already been stated, there are no towns or villages in the Sundarbans; a list of the river-side trading marts will be found below. PORT CANNING, on the Matlá river, was formerly a municipality; it was started by an English company to supply an auxiliary harbour to Calcutta, with which town it is connected by rail. The attempt failed, and the place is now quite deserted.

Agriculture.—The principal staple of the Sundarbans is rice, of which two crops (*áus* or autumn, and *áman* or winter harvest) are raised in the year; the former, however, is only cultivated to a very limited extent. The rice of the eastern and western portions of the Sundarbans is said to be of finer quality than that grown in the central tract. The cultivators grow a few other crops—vegetables, pulses, etc.—for home consumption. Sugar-cane and *pán* are cultivated in the Bákarganj Sundarbans; and successful attempts have been made to grow jute. The price of ordinary rice varies from 3s. 9d. to 5s. 6d. a cwt. Wages are for the most part paid in kind. An account of the tenures of the Sundarbans will be found in the article on JESSOR.

Natural Calamities.—Cyclones in the Bay of Bengal, and the storm-waves which sometimes accompany them, are the only natural calamities to which the Sundarbans are subject. The inlying tracts are to a great extent protected from the effect of these storm-waves by the belt of thick jungle near the sea, as well as by the sandhills formed along the coast by the heavy silt-laden swell which rolls shoreward during the south-west monsoon.

Trade.—There are several river-side trading villages on the border between the Sundarbans and the adjacent Districts; and as almost all the traffic between Calcutta and the eastern Districts is carried on by boat routes through the Sundarbans, the periodical markets held at these places are well attended. The principal of them are—Básrá and Basantpur, on the boundary-line between the Twenty-four Parganás and the Sundarbans; and Chándkhálí, Morellganj, and Khulná, near the Jessor Sundarbans. By far the most valuable export of the Sundarbans is timber and firewood. According to the registration returns for 1876-77, about 57,000 tons of timber, valued at £480,000, and 157,000 tons of firewood, valued at £110,000, were imported into Calcutta. Other products of the Sundarbans which form articles of trade are canes and reeds (of which baskets and mats are made), honey, beeswax, and shell lime. Large quantities of fish are caught and sent to Calcutta.

The Sundarbans Waterways are of the first importance, as being the chief means of communication between Calcutta and the East. Not only the jungle produce of the Sundarbans, but also the rice, jute, and oil-seeds of all Eastern and Northern Bengal, as well as the tea of Assam and Cáchár, are carried by one or other of these routes. Nearly all the innumerable cross channels which divide the Sundarbans into a network of islands are navigable; but traffic naturally follows certain defined routes, which are themselves liable to change, as old streams silt up and new channels open out year by year. The central mart of the Sundarbans is KHULNA in Jessor, at the junction of the Atharabanka and the Bhairab rivers, towards which all the great boat-routes converge. Khulná is about 51 miles by water due east of Calcutta, with which it is connected by the 'Calcutta Canals,' under the supervision of the Public Works Department. The two 'Calcutta Canals' proper terminate at Samukpata and Bámanghata, 16 and 12 miles respectively from Calcutta; but the tow-path is continued as far as Khulná itself, so that boats can proceed by tracking at any state of the tide. From Khulná, routes branch off north, east, and south. The chief northern route proceeds up the Athárabanka, the Madhumati, and the Gorái, into the Padma or main channel of the Ganges, and brings down the produce, not only of Northern Bengal, but also of Behar, during the dry season, when the Nadiya rivers are closed. In recent years, the silting up of this route has led to its abandonment by steamers. The eastern route from Khulná passes down the Bhairab, and then by Barisál through Bákarganj District to Dacca. The principal southern route comes out at Morrellganj. In 1876-77, the total number of boats registered as passing Khulná was 130,313. All these streams are tidal, and the mode of navigation by country boats is by using the ebb and flow of the tide. Part of every day's journey has to be made with the ebb, and part with the flow, so that the speed of the

voyage depends entirely upon the success with which each tide is caught. A whole fleet of boats may be seen at the recognised anchorages waiting for the tide; and the District from which they come can be readily distinguished by the shape of the bow and stern. Some of these anchorages are far from any habitations of men; but all sorts of necessaries (including water) are for sale at a sort of floating *bázár*. Large boats take about five days to get from Morrellganj to Chándkhálí, and between these two places there is not a single permanent village. The steamer-routes through the Sundarbans are not the same as those followed by country boats. But even steamers avoid as much as possible the difficult navigation of the Húglí river and the open sea. They cross the Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás and Jessor by a route lying far to the south, and hardly catch sight of a human abode until they appear at Morrellganj.

The Calcutta and South-Eastern State Railway, originally intended to connect Calcutta with PORT CANNING on the Matlá, may now, since the abandonment of that port, be regarded as merely a means of local communication through the Sundarbans. Its total length is only 28 miles, and the traffic is almost entirely confined to the conveyance of firewood and a little rice to Calcutta. It was purchased by Government in 1868, by repayment of the capital that had been expended by the guaranteed company. Up to 31st March 1878, the total capital outlay had been £660,480. In the calendar year 1878, the gross receipts were £12,828, and the gross expenses £9437; the net earnings were thus £3391, or 5 per cent., being the highest figure yet obtained. The total number of passengers carried was 598,108, and the total quantity of goods 33,044 tons.

For further information regarding the Sundarbans, the reader is referred to the articles on the TWENTY-FOUR PARGANAS, JESSOR, and BAKARGANJ.

Sundarganj.—Trading village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Chief exports—rice, mustard seed, and jute.

Sundeep.—Island in the Bay of Bengal.—*See* SANDWIP.

Sundoor.—Hills in Bellary District, Madras.—*See* SANDUR.

Sundoor.—State in Madras.—*See* SANDUR.

Sunkam.—Estate in Bastar, Central Provinces; comprising 90 villages. Area, 400 square miles. It lies between a range of hills and the river Sabarí, on the left bank of which stands Sunkam, the chief village. The forests contain much excellent teak.

Sunth.—Native State in the Political Agency of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 394 square miles; pop. (1872), 49,675. It is bounded on the north by the States of Dungarpur and Banswára, and by the Jhálod Subdivision of the British District of the Panch Mahále; on the south by Báriya State under Rewa Kántha, and by the Godhra

Subdivision of the Panch Maháls; and on the west by Lunáwára State.

General Aspects.—This territory is one of the wildest in Rewa Kántha. The country is rugged, being broken up by bare hills with valleys between. The soil is stony, but fertile. Irrigation is carried on from tanks and wells. The chief products are cereals and timber.

History.—The family of the chief of Sunth belongs to the division of Rájputs known as Powars, and was originally settled at Ujjain. The dynasty was driven thence (it is stated in the 10th century A.D.), and after some vicissitudes of fortune, settled at Jhálod. There is a legend that the Emperor, hearing of the exceeding beauty of the daughter of Jhálam Sinh, Ráná of Jhálod, demanded her in marriage, and that on Jhálam Sinh declining the alliance, he was attacked by the Mughal army, and was defeated and killed. His son, Ráná Sunth, fled for safety to the Sunth jungles, then under the sway of a Bhíl chief called Sutta. In the year 1255, Sunth defeated Sutta, and took possession of his capital, called Brahmapuri. He changed its name to Sunth, and established his own dynasty. According to another tradition, the Sunth family is said to have come from Dhár in Málwá, when that principality was conquered by the Muhammadans. The State was tributary to Sindhia, but, along with Lunáwára, the control over it was transferred to the British Government in 1812. The present chief (1876-77) is Mahárána Partáb Sinh, a Rájput of the Punwar clan. He is a minor of fifteen, and is under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £8000, inclusive of transit dues; and pays a tribute of £700 jointly to the British Government and the Gáekwár of Baroda. A military force is maintained of 140 men. During the minority of the chief, the affairs of the State are under the charge of the Political Agent of Rewa Kántha. The family follows the rule of primogeniture in point of succession.

Sunth.—Chief town of Sunth State, Bombay. Lat. 22° 26′ N., long. 74° 15′ E.

Súpúl.—Subdivision of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 25° 44′ 30″ and 26° 35′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 21′ 15″ and 87° 15′ E. long. Area, 1275 square miles; number of villages, 678; houses, 97,217. Pop. (1872), 565,747, of whom 510,690, or 90·3 per cent., were Hindus; 54,981, or 9·7 per cent., Muhammadans; 70 Christians; and 6 of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 50·8 per cent.; average density of population, 444 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 0·53; persons per village, 834; houses per square mile, 76; persons per house, 5·8. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles of Súpúl, Bangáon, and

Náthpur. In 1870-71, there was 1 magisterial and revenue court; a regular police force of 71 men; and a rural watch of 941; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £3848.

Súpúl.—Town (or more properly a collection of three villages, Súpúl Bhelahí, and Karael) in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name. Lat. 26° 6′ 25″ N., long. 86° 38′ 11″ E.; pop. (1872), 2178. Almost all the dwellings are built of reeds, as, the soil being sandy, earthen walls cannot be raised. The inhabitants consist of Banias, who deal in rice, cloth, and sweetmeats; a few weavers, Bráhmans, and Káyasths, and a considerable number of Musalmáns. The suburban villages are wholly agricultural.

Surájgarha.—Town in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 15′ 25″ N., long. 86° 16′ 1″ E.; pop. (1872), 7935, of whom 4245 were males and 3690 females.

Surájpur.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by the Kalyáni river, on the south by the Gumti, and on the west by Siddhaur *parganá*. Area, 81,645 acres, of which 37,052 acres are cultivated; pop. (1869), 65,953, namely, Hindus, 62,955, and Muhammadans, 2998. This *parganá* comprises 107 villages, of which 57 are held under *tálukdárí*, 43 under *zamíndárí*, and 7 under *pattidárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £9648. The chief village, founded 600 years ago, gives its name to the *parganá*. The tract was originally in possession of the Bhars, who were ousted by Patháns. During the reign of Akbar, the Pathán proprietor, Awar Khán, refused to pay revenue. A force was sent against him, under Rájá Baram Bálí, when he was defeated, and his lands made over to the victor, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár*.

Surájpur.—Village in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Ganges, in lat. 26° 9′ N., and long. 80° 39′ E. Several Hindu temples and *gháts* or bathing-steps, some in ruins, line the water's edge. *Bázár*.

Surám.—*Tahsíl* of Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Ganges. Area, 259 square miles, of which 145 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 177,755; land revenue, £23,134; total Government revenue, £25,464; rental paid by cultivators, £43,507

Súramangalam.—Suburb of Salem town, Madras Presidency. It contains the Salem railway station on the Madras Railway (207 miles from Madras), which was opened in 1861.

Surat.—A British District in Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 20° 15′ and 21° 28′ N. lat., and between 72° 38′ and 73° 30′ 30″ E. long.; with an area of 1669 square miles, and a population in 1872 of 607,087 souls. Surat is bounded on the north by Broach District, and the Native State of Baroda; on the east by the States of Baroda, Rájpipla,

Bánsda, and Dharampur; on the south by Thána (Tanna) District and the Portuguese territory of Daman; and on the west by the Arabian Sea. A broad strip of Baroda territory separates the north-western from the south-eastern portion of the District. The administrative headquarters are at the city of SURAT.

Physical Aspects.—Surat District consists of a broad alluvial plain, stretching between the Dáng Hills and the coast, from the Kim river on the north, to the Damánganga on the south. The coast-line runs along the Arabian Sea, where it begins to narrow into the Gulf of Cambay. Small hillocks of drifted sand fringe the greater part of the shore, in some parts dry and barren, but in others watered by springs, enclosed by hedges, and covered with a thick growth of creepers and date-palms. Through the openings of the river mouths, however, the tide runs up behind the barrier of sandhills, and floods either permanently or temporarily a large area of salt-marshes. Beyond spreads a central alluvial belt of highly cultivated land, with a width of about 60 miles in the north, where the important river TAPTI forms a deep and fertile delta; but as the coast-line trends towards the south, the hills at the same time draw nearer to the coast, and so restrict the alluvial country to a breadth of little more than 15 miles on the Damán border. The deep loam brought down by the Tápti gives a level aspect to the northern tract; but farther south, a number of small and rapid rivers have cut themselves ravine-like beds, between which lie rougher uplands with a scantier soil and poorer vegetation. In the hollows, and often on the open plain, rich deposits of black cotton-soil overlie the alluvium. The eastern border of the District consists of less fruitful lands, cut up by small torrents, and interspersed with mounds of rising ground. Here the huts of an ill-fed and almost unsettled peasantry replace the rich villages of skilled cultivators in the central lowland. On the border, this wild region passes gradually into the hills and forests of the DANGS, an unhealthy jungle which none but the black aboriginal tribes can visit save at special periods of the year. The hills themselves consist of trap in many varieties, from solid basalt to soft amygdaloid, and belong orographically to the great trappean plateau of Central and Western India. Here cultivation entirely disappears, and the whole country lies under wild brushwood. The chief rivers of Surat are the TAPTI and the Kim, on the former of which stands the city of Surat. The Tápti gives rise to the largest alluvial lowland in the District; but its frequent floods till lately caused great loss of life and damage to property. It enjoys a reputation for sanctity in Western India second only to that of the Narbadá. The District contains no natural lakes; but reservoirs cover a total area of 10,838 acres. With one exception, they consist of small ponds, formed by throwing horse-shoe embankments across the natural lines of drainage. The fauna

includes a few tigers, stragglers from the jungles of Bánsda and Dharampur, besides leopards, bears, wild boars, wolves, hyænas, spotted deer, and antelopes. Duck and other wildfowl abound during the cold season on the ponds and reservoirs.

History.—Surat was one of the earliest portions of India brought into close relations with European countries, and its history merges almost entirely into that of its capital, long the greatest maritime city of the peninsula. The city appears to be comparatively modern in its origin; though the local Musalmán historians assert that at the commencement of the 13th century Kutab-ud-dín, after defeating Bhim Deo, Rájput king of Anhilwára, penetrated as far south as Ránder and Surat. The District then formed part of the dominions ruled over by a Hindu chief, who fled from his fortress at Kánrej, 13 miles east of Surat city, and submitted to the Musalmán conqueror, so obtaining leave to retain his principality. In 1347, during the Guzerat rebellion in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, Surat was given up to be plundered by the troops of the Emperor. In 1373, Firoz Tughlak built a fort at Surat to protect the town against the Bhíls. During the 15th century, no notice of Surat occurs in the chronicles of the Musalmán kings of Ahmedábád. But tradition generally assigns the foundation of the modern city to the beginning of the 16th century, when a rich Hindu trader, Gopi by name, settled here, and made many improvements. As early as 1514, the Portuguese traveller, Barbosa, describes Surat as 'a very important seaport, frequented by many ships from Malabar and all other ports.' Two years before, the Portuguese had burnt the town, an outrage which they repeated in 1530 and 1531. Thereupon, the Ahmedábád king gave orders for building a stronger fort, completed about 1546. In 1572, Surat fell into the hands of the Mirzás, then in rebellion against the Emperor Akbar. Early in the succeeding year, Akbar arrived in person before the town, which he captured after a vigorous siege. For 160 years, the city and District remained under the administration of officers appointed by the Mughal court. During the reigns of Akbar, Jahángír, and Sháh Jahán, Surat enjoyed unbroken peace, and rose to be one of the first mercantile cities of India. In Akbar's great Revenue Survey, the city is mentioned as a first-class port, ruled by two distinct officers. Since 1573, the Portuguese had remained undisputed masters of the Surat seas. But in 1608, an English ship arrived at the mouth of the Tápti, bringing letters from James I. to the Emperor Jahángír. Mukarab Khán, the Mughal governor, allowed the captain to bring his merchandise into the town. Next year, a second English ship arrived off Guzerat, but was wrecked on the Surat coast. The Portuguese endeavoured to prevent the shipwrecked crew from settling in the town, and they accordingly went up to Agra with their captain. In 1609, Bahádur, the last Musalmán king of

Ahmedábád, attempted unsuccessfully to recover Surat from the Mughals. Two years later, a small fleet of 3 English ships arrived in the Tápti; but as the Portuguese occupied the coast and entrance, the English admiral, Sir H. Middleton, was compelled to anchor outside. Small skirmishes took place between the rival traders, until in the end the English withdrew. In 1612, however, the Governor of Guzerat concluded a treaty by which our countrymen were permitted to trade at Surat, Cambay, Ahmedábád, and Gogo. After a fierce fight with the Portuguese, the English made good their position, established a factory, and shortly after obtained a charter from the Emperor. Surat thus became the seat of a Presidency under the East India Company. The Company's ships usually anchored in a roadstead north of the mouth of the Tápti, called in old books 'Swally' or 'Swally Road,' but correctly Suwáli. Continued intrigues between the Portuguese and the Mughals made the position of the English traders long uncertain, till Sir Thomas Roe arrived in 1615, and went on to AJMERE, where Jahángír then held his court. After three years' residence there, Roe returned to the coast in 1618, bringing important privileges for the English. Meanwhile, the Dutch had also made a settlement in Surat, and obtained leave to establish a factory. Early travellers describe the city as populous and wealthy, with handsome houses and a great trade. The fifty years between the establishment of the English and Dutch, and the accession of Aurangzeb, formed a time of great and increasing prosperity for Surat. With the access of wealth, the town improved greatly in appearance. During the busy winter months, lodgings could hardly be obtained, owing to the influx of people. Caravans came and went to Golconda, to Agra, to Delhi, and to Lahore. Ships arrived from the Konkan and Malabar coast; while from the outer world, besides the flourishing European trade, merchants came from Arabia, the Persian Gulf, Ceylon, and Acheen in Sumatra. Silk and cotton cloth formed the chief articles of export. European ships did not complete the lading and unlading of their cargoes at Surat; but having disposed of a part of their goods, and laid in a stock of indigo for the home market, they took on a supply of Guzerat manufactures for the eastern trade, and sailed to Acheen and Bantam, where they exchanged the remainder of their European and Indian merchandise for spices. The Dutch in particular made Surat their principal factory in India, while the French also had a small settlement. Under Aurangzeb, the District suffered from frequent Marhattá raids, which, however, did little to impair its mercantile position. The silting up of the head of the Cambay Gulf, the disturbed state of Northern Guzerat, and the destruction of Diu by the Maskat Arabs in 1670, combined to centre the trade of the Province upon Surat. Its position as 'the Gate of Mecca' was further increased in importance by the religious zeal of Aurangzeb. But the rise of the

predatory Marhattá power put a temporary check to its prosperity. The first considerable Marhattá raid took place in 1664, when Sivají the Great suddenly appeared before Surat, and pillaged the city unopposed for three days. He collected in that short time a booty estimated at one million sterling. Encouraged by this success, the Marhattá leader returned in the year 1669, and once more plundered the town. Thenceforward, for several years a Marhattá raid was almost an annual certainty. The Europeans usually retired to their factories on these occasions, and endeavoured, by conciliating the Marhattás, to save their own interests. Nevertheless, the city probably reached its highest pitch of wealth during this troublous period at the end of the 17th century. It contained a population estimated at 200,000 persons, and its buildings, especially two handsome mosques, were not unworthy of its commercial greatness. In 1695, it is described as 'the prime mart of India,—all nations of the world trading there; no ship trading in the Indian Ocean but what puts into Surat to buy, sell, or load.' But the importance of Surat to the English East India Company declined considerably during the later part of Aurangzeb's reign, partly owing to the growing value of Bombay, and partly to the disorders in the city itself. In 1678, the settlement was reduced to an Agency, though three years later it once more became a Presidency. In 1684, orders were received to transfer the chief seat of the Company's trade to Bombay, a transfer actually effected in 1687. During the greater part of this period, the Dutch were the most successful traders in Surat. From the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the authority of the Delhi court gradually declined, and the Marhattás established themselves in power up to the very walls of Surat. The governors nominally appointed by the Mughals employed themselves chiefly in fighting with the Hindu intruders for the country just beyond the gates. At length, in 1733, Teg Bakht Khán, governor of the city, made himself entirely independent; and for twenty-seven years Surat remained under a native dynasty. For the first thirteen years of this period, Teg Bakht Khán maintained an unbroken control over the city; but after his death in 1746, a time of complete anarchy intervened. The English and Dutch took an active part in the struggles for the succession, sometimes in concert, and sometimes as partisans of the rival competitors. In 1759, internal faction had rendered trade so insecure, that the authorities at Bombay determined to make an attack upon Surat, with the sanction of the Marhattás, now practically masters of Western India. After a slight resistance, the governor capitulated, and the English became supreme in Surat. For forty-one years, the government of the new dependency was practically carried on by the conquerors, but the governors or Nawábs still retained a show of independence until 1800. The earlier years of the English rule formed again a flourishing period for Surat, when the

city increased in size, owing partly to the security of British protection and partly to the sudden development of a great export trade in raw cotton with China. The population of the city was estimated at 800,000 persons; and though this figure is doubtless excessive, Surat was probably the most populous town in all India. Towards the close of the century, however, the general disorder of all Central and Southern India, and the repeated wars in Europe, combined to weaken its prosperity. Two local events, the storm of 1782 and the famine of 1790, also contributed to drive away trade, the greater part of which now centred itself in Bombay. In 1799, the last nominally independent Nawáb died, and an arrangement was effected with his brother, by which the government became wholly vested in the British, the new Nawáb retaining only the title and a considerable pension. The political management of Surat devolved upon an officer who bore at first the title of Lieutenant-Governor, since altered (after certain fluctuations) to that of Agent to the Governor of Bombay. The arrangements of 1800 put the English in possession of Surat and Ránder; subsequent cessions under the treaties of Bassein (1802) and Poona (1817), together with the lapse of the Mándvi State in 1839, brought the District into its present shape. The title of Nawáb became extinct in 1842. Since the introduction of British rule, the District has remained free from external attacks and from internal anarchy, the only considerable breach of the public peace having been occasioned by the Musalmán disturbance in 1810. During the Mutiny of 1857, Surat enjoyed unbroken tranquillity, due in great measure to the stedfast loyalty of its leading Muhammadan families.

Population.—The Census of 1851 returned the total number of inhabitants in Surat District at 492,684 persons, or 332 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 showed an increase in twenty-one years of 114,403 persons, or 23·22 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 1669 square miles, and it disclosed a total population of 607,087 persons, or 382·29 to the square mile. Classified according to sex, there were 304,246 males, and 302,841 females; proportion of males, 50·12 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 117,416; females, 108,606; total, 226,022, or 37·23 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 186,830; females, 194,235; total, 381,065, or 62·77 per cent. of the whole population. The religious classification yielded the following results:—Hindus, 541,738, or 89·23 per cent.; Musalmáns, 52,157, or 8·59 per cent.; Pársís, 12,841, or 2·11 per cent. The District also contained 334 Christians, 1 Jew, 2 Síkhs, 9 members of the Bráhma Samáj, and 5 'others.' The total number of persons belonging to aboriginal tribes amounted to 180,107. The mass of the population, except in the large towns of Surat, Bulsár, and Ránder, live in villages scattered over the

alluvial lowlands. The District contained only 3 towns in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—SURAT (107,149), the head-quarters and chief commercial centre; BULSAR (11,313), a seaport on the Auranga river; and RANDER (10,280), a considerable municipality with a large trade in cotton, on the Tápti, 2 miles above Surat. Bodhan (3305) is a place of Hindu pilgrimage, with a large temple; Párnera, near Bulsár, has a dismantled fort, long one of the strongest fortresses in the District; Suwáli, the seaport of Surat, is a village outside the mouth of the Tápti. An important fair takes place yearly at the hamlet of Unái. The language in ordinary use is Guzerati.

Agriculture.—Surat, in spite of the commercial importance of its chief town, still remains an essentially rural District, no less than 334,919 persons, or 55·18 per cent. of the whole population, being wholly or partly supported by agriculture. The cultivated area has largely increased of late years. In 1859-60, the total area under tillage amounted to 431,542 acres; by 1872-73, it had risen to 659,804 acres, showing an increase of 52·89 per cent. Rice forms the staple crop, with an area in 1874-75 of 86,448 acres. It is grown chiefly on the black or red soil in the neighbourhood of ponds. Millet (*joár*) holds the second place, with an area of 72,521 acres. It is largely grown in the northern part of the District. Cotton covered 59,234 acres, chiefly in the valley of the Tápti. It can only be raised in rotation with other crops. *Kodra* and *nágli* (57,626 acres) form the food of the poorest classes. Sugar-cane flourishes better in Surat than in any other District of Guzerat, and constitutes the favourite crop in garden land. Molasses, manufactured by the cultivators, forms a large item of export to Northern Guzerat and Káthiáwár. *Bájra* and tobacco occupy small areas. The two usual harvests, *kharíf* and *rabí*, prevail in Surat as in the rest of Guzerat. The most striking feature in the agriculture of the District is the difference between the tillage of the *ujli*, or fair races, and that of the *kála*, or dark aboriginal cultivators. The dark races use only the rudest processes; grow little save the coarser kinds of grain, seldom attempting to raise wheat or millet; and have no tools for weeding or cleaning the fields. After sowing their crops, they leave the land, and only return some months later for the harvest. As soon as they have gathered in their crops, they barter the surplus grain for liquor. The fair cultivators, on the other hand, who own the rich alluvial soil of the lowlands, are among the most industrious and intelligent in Western India. Nevertheless, many excellent crops for which the land is well fitted, such as indigo, tobacco, and wheat, are very scantily raised, apparently for no better reason than that their cultivation has long been unusual. Except at the beginning of the season, and during harvest, the small proprietors are generally able, with the help of their families alone, to till their fields without hired labour. Among the sugar-cane

villages in the south, however, large numbers of labourers find employment. Small holdings form the rule in Surat; but as a large number of them consist of garden land, they support the proprietors in comparative comfort. The cultivators also earn considerable sums by carting timber and grain from the inland villages to the railway and the seacoast. Almost all the dark races, from their indolence and love of drink, are heavily in debt; but the fair races, though often under obligations to the money-lenders, are usually in comfortable circumstances. Government has instituted a scheme for reclaiming the waste lands overflowed by the tide, on terms highly remunerative to the public; and no less than 51,943 acres have been taken on lease for this purpose. These measures have on the whole met with excellent success. Irrigation is mainly carried on from ponds and reservoirs; but a proposition for an extended system of canals in connection with the river Tápti is still (1876) under consideration. Wages have fallen of late years, owing to the general depression which followed upon the high prices prevailing during the American Civil War. They are still, however, higher than in many other parts of India. In 1876, a carpenter received 1s. per diem, and an unskilled labourer, 6d. Many of the labouring classes, especially among the dark races, remain practically in a position of serfdom, attached to hereditary masters. They squat on some open plot of their master's ground, and receive as wages nothing but their food and a few articles of clothing. Independent field labourers receive 4½d. per diem. Prices have fallen since the American War. Food grains ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 24 lbs. for the rupee; *joár*, 34 lbs.; rice, 20 lbs.; pulse, 24 lbs.

Natural Calamities.—The great famines of 1623, 1717, 1747, 1790, and 1803 affected Surat as they did the remainder of Guzerat. Since the establishment of British rule, however, no famine has occurred sufficiently intense to seriously affect the people of the District. Grain rose to a high figure, and remissions of land revenue became necessary in two or three years, during the earlier part of this century; but since 1839, no remission has been required. Very serious floods on the Tápti form the most disastrous calamity to which Surat is liable. In 1810 and 1822, the waters inundated a large part of the city. In 1835, the whole city lay under water, and 500 houses were carried away. In 1837, the river rose twice, and broke down a large portion of the city walls. In 1843 and 1849, other destructive inundations took place. The Surat municipality undertook a series of protective works in 1869; and though severe floods have since occurred on four occasions, these works have sufficed to secure the city against the loss of life and property which formerly accompanied every inundation.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Trade centres chiefly in the towns of Surat and Bulsár, as well as in the seaport of BILIMORA. The

total value of the exports from the seven seaports of the District in 1874 amounted to £444,642, and that of the imports to £70,505. The exports include grain, pulse, *mahuá* fruit, timber, and bamboos; the imports comprise tobacco, cotton seed, iron, cocoa-nuts, and European goods. In 1874, the shipping of Surat port amounted to 1533 vessels, of an average burden of 18 tons, and that of Bulsár to 2065 vessels, of the same average tonnage. The total value of the trade of Surat is now (1875) little more than half of its value in 1801. The inland route along the Tápti has still considerable importance, the number of pack-bullocks being estimated at from 20,000 to 40,000, and the total value of trade at £40,000 per annum. The timber trade between the Dáng forests and the southern ports and railway stations also maintains its consequence. Among manufactures the spinning and weaving of cotton holds the first place, employing almost the entire female population, both rural and urban, except amongst the aboriginal tribes. Surat city contains two steam factories for spinning and weaving. Silk brocade, and embroidery are also largely manufactured by handlooms. The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway runs through the whole District from north to south, a distance of 73½ miles, with 15 stations, of which the chief are Surat, Navsári, Amalsád, Bilimora, and Bulsár. The District had 64 lines of road in 1876, extending over a total length of 314 miles. A magnificent iron girder bridge crosses the Tápti at Surat city. A steam ferry plies between Surat, Gogo, and Bhaunagar.

Administration.—In 1827-28, the earliest year for which the accounts remain, the total revenue of the District amounted to £282,714. In 1874-75, the revenue had risen to £475,879. The total taxation in the last-named year amounted to £419,942, or 13s. 10d. per head of the population. Of this sum, the land tax contributed £224,173. The last land settlement took place in 1873. Separate agreements are made with individual holders, and the rents are fixed according to the intrinsic value of the soil, with liability to revision at the expiry of a 30 years' lease. The District contained, in 1875, 7 civil courts, while 26 officers shared criminal jurisdiction. The police of Surat was in a most disorderly state on the British conquest, and bands of armed thieves committed robberies in the neighbourhood and even in the streets of the city. Before many years, however, these open breaches of the peace had been effectually repressed. In 1874, the total strength of the regular police force was 649 men, maintained at a total cost of £11,057; being at the rate of 1 man to every 2·57 square miles and to every 935 of the population; while the cost was at the rate of £6, 12s. 6d. per square mile, or 4½d. per head of population. The chief obstacle to the efficiency of the police consists in the ease with which offenders can escape into the Portuguese territory of Daman or

into the neighbouring Native States. In the north, bands of Bhíls cross the frontier, make depredations on the villagers, and retire with their plunder. To guard against these robbers, a system of black-mail still prevails in parts. Education makes steady though not rapid progress. In 1873-74, the District contained 253 Government schools, with a total roll of 12,414 pupils, of whom 8374 attended daily on an average. These figures show 1 school for every 3 villages, and 26·6 pupils to every thousand of the population under 20 years of age. The expenditure on education amounted to £14,544, of which £3033 was debited to the imperial treasury. In 1855, there were no girls' schools; but in 1873-74, there were 25, with an average attendance of 777 pupils. For fiscal and administrative purposes the District is subdivided into 8 *tahsíls.* The four municipalities of Surat, Bulsár, Ránder, and Mándvi had an aggregate revenue in 1874-75 of £23,233.

Medical Aspects. — The climate of Surat varies greatly with the distance from the sea. In the neighbourhood of the coast, under the influence of the sea-breeze, an equable temperature prevails; but from 8 to 10 miles inland, the breeze ceases to blow. The coast also possesses a much lighter rainfall than the interior, the annual average ranging from 30 inches in Olpád to 72 inches in Chikhli. The average at Surat city for the ten years 1862-71 amounted to 46·26 inches. Párdi in the south, and Mándvi in the north-east, have a bad reputation for unhealthiness. The temperature of the city for a term of ten years, 1852-61, ranged as follows:—January, maximum 87° F., minimum 60°; May, maximum 99°, minimum 80°. The common endemic diseases include fever, ague, dysentery, and diarrhœa. In Mándvi and the Dángs, a severe type of malarious fever prevails. The total number of deaths reported in the five years ending 1875 was 78,777, showing an annual average of 15,755, or 25·9 per thousand. Of these, no less than 67 per cent. were assigned to fever. The District contained in 1874-75, besides the civil hospital, 9 charitable dispensaries, all of them established since 1862. They afforded relief during that year to 55,300 persons, of whom 938 were in-door patients. The civil hospital, established in 1823, has a building erected in 1864 at a cost of £7190, through the liberality of Sir Cowasjí Jahángír, K.C.S.I. The total amount expended on public health in 1874-75 was £5359.

Surat.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Surat District, Bombay, and former seat of a Presidency under the East India Company. Lat. 21° 9′ 30″ N., long. 72° 54′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 107,149 persons. Situated on the southern bank of the river Tápti; distant from the sea 14 miles by water, 10 miles by land. Once the chief commercial city of India, and still an important mercantile town, though the greater portion of its export and import trade has long since centred in Bombay.

Position and General Aspect.—Surat lies on a bend of the Tápti, where the river suddenly sweeps westward towards its mouth. In the centre of its river front rises the castle, a mass of irregular fortifications, flanked at each corner by large round towers, and presenting a picturesque appearance when viewed from the water. Planned and built in 1540 by Khudáwand Khán, a Turkish soldier in the service of the Guzerat kings, it remained a military fortress under the Mughal and the British rule till 1862, when the troops were withdrawn and the buildings utilized as public offices. With the castle as its centre, the city stretches in the arc of a circle for about a mile and a quarter along the river bank. Southward, the public park with its tall trees hides the houses in its rear; while low meadow lands elsewhere fringe the bank, from which the opposite ground rises slightly northward on the right shore, toward the ancient town of Ránder, now almost a suburb of Surat. Two lines of fortification, the inner and the outer, once enclosed Surat; and though the interior wall has long since all but disappeared, the moat which marks its former course still preserves distinct the city and the suburbs. Within the city proper, the space is on the whole thickly peopled; and the narrow but clean and well-watered streets wind between rows of handsome houses, the residences of high-caste Hindus and wealthy Pársís. The suburbs, on the other hand, lie scattered among wide open spaces, once villa gardens, but now cultivated only as fields. The unmetalled lanes, hollowed many feet deep, form water-courses in the rainy season, and stand thick in dust during the fair weather. The dwellings consist of huts of low-caste Hindus or weavers' cottages. West of the city, the military cantonment lies along the river bank, with its open parade-ground stretching down to the water's edge.

Population.—During the 18th century, Surat probably ranked as the most populous city of India. As late as 1797, its inhabitants were estimated at 800,000 persons; and though this calculation is doubtless excessive, the real numbers must have been very high. With the transfer of its trade to Bombay, the numbers rapidly fell off. In 1811, an official report returns the population at 250,000 persons, and in 1816, at 124,406. In 1847, when the fortunes of Surat reached their lowest ebb, the number of inhabitants amounted to only 80,000. Thenceforward the city began to retrieve its position. By 1851, the total had risen to 89,505; and in 1872, it stood once more at 107,149. Of this number, 79,076, or 73·81 per cent., were Hindus; 21,260, or 19·84 per cent., Muhammadans; 6500, or 6·06 per cent., Pársís; and 313, or 0·29 per cent., Christians and 'others.' The Pársís and high-caste Hindus form the wealthy classes; the Musalmáns are in depressed circumstances, except the Borahs, many of whom are prosperous traders. Fondness for pleasure and ostentation characterise all classes and

creeds in Surat alike. Caste feasts and processions are more common and more costly than elsewhere. Fairs, held a few miles away in the country, attract large crowds of gaily dressed men and children, in bright bullock-carts. The Pársís join largely in these entertainments, besides holding their own old-fashioned feasts in their public hall. The Borahs are famous for their hospitality and good living. The extravagant habits engendered by former commercial prosperity have survived the wealth on which they were founded.

History.—The annals of Surat city, under native rule, have already been briefly given in the article on SURAT DISTRICT. During the 17th and 18th centuries, Surat ranked as the chief export and import centre of India. After the assumption of the entire government by the British in 1800, prosperity, which had deserted the town towards the close of the last century, for a time reappeared. But the steady transfer of trade to Bombay, combined with the famine of 1813 in northern Guzerat, continued to undermine its commercial importance; and by 1825, the trade had sunk to the export of a little raw cotton to the rising capital of the Presidency. In 1837, two calamities occurred in close succession, which destroyed the greater part of the city, and reduced almost all its inhabitants to a state of poverty. For three days in the month of April, a fire raged through the very heart of Surat, laying 9373 houses in ruins, and extending over nearly 10 miles of thoroughfare, both in the city and the suburbs. No estimate can be given of the total loss to property, but the houses alone represented an approximate value of £450,000. Towards the close of the rainy season in the same year, the Tápti rose to the greatest height ever known, flooded almost the whole city, and covered the surrounding country for miles like a sea, entailing a further loss of about £27,000. This second calamity left the people almost helpless. Already, after the fire, many of the most intelligent merchants, both Hindu and Pársí, no longer bound to home by the ties of an establishment, had deserted Surat for Bombay. In 1838, it remained 'but the shadow of what it had been, two-thirds to three-fourths of the city having been annihilated.' From 1840 onward, however, affairs began to change for the better. Trade improved and increased steadily, till in 1858 its position as the centre of railway operations in Guzerat brought a new influx of wealth and importance. The high prices which ruled during the American War again made Surat a wealthy city. The financial disasters of 1865-66 in Bombay somewhat affected all Western India, but Surat nevertheless preserved the greater part of its wealth. At the present day, though the fall of prices has reduced the value of property, the well-kept streets, public buildings, and large private expenditure stamp the city with an unmistakable air of steady order and prosperity.

Commerce and Trade-guilds.—The sea commerce of Surat has de-

clined from a total estimated value of £1,043,222 in 1801, to £273,241 in 1874. The principal articles of export are agricultural produce and cotton. Since the opening of the railway, however, a great and growing land traffic has sprung up, which has done much to revive the prosperity of the city. The port of Surat is at Suwáli, 12 miles west of the city. The railway station of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway is outside the city, surrounded by a rising suburb. The organisation of trade-guilds is highly developed in Surat. The chief of these guilds, composed of the leading bankers and merchants, is called the *mahájan* or banker-guild. Its funds, derived from fees on cotton and on bills of exchange, are spent partly on the animal hospitals and partly on the temples of the Vallábhá Achárya sect. The title and office of Nagarseth, or chief merchant of the city, hereditary in a Sráwak or Jain family, has for long been little more than a name. Though including men of different castes and races, each class of craftsmen has its trade-guild or *pancháyat*, with a headman or referee in petty trade disputes. They have also a common purse, spending their funds partly in charity and partly in entertainments. A favourite device for raising money is for the men of the craft or trade to agree, on a certain day, to shut all their shops but one. The right to keep open this one shop is then put up to auction, and the amount bid is credited to the guild fund.

Chief Buildings.—The English church stands upon the river bank, between the castle and the custom-house, and has seats for about 100 persons. The Portuguese or Roman Catholic chapel occupies a site near the old Dutch factory. The Musalmáns have several large mosques, of which four are handsome buildings. The Nav Sayyid Sáhib's mosque stands on the bank of the Gopi Lake, an old dry tank, once reckoned among the finest works in Guzerat. Beside the mosque rise nine tombs, in honour of nine warriors, whose graves were miraculously discovered by a local Muhammadan saint. The Sayyid Idrus mosque, with a minaret which forms one of the most conspicuous buildings in Surat, was built in 1639 by a rich merchant, in honour of an ancestor of the present Shaikh Sayyid Husain Idrus, C.S.I. The Mirzá Sámi mosque and tomb, ornamented with carving and tracery, was built about 1540 by Khudáwand Khán. The Pársís have two chief fire-temples for their two subdivisions. The principal Hindu shrines perished in the fire of 1837, but have since been rebuilt by pious inhabitants. Gosávi Mahárájá's temple, built in 1695, was renewed after the fire at a cost of £10,000. Two shrines of Hanumán, the monkey-god, are much respected by the people. The tombs of early European residents form some of the most interesting objects in Surat. Two hospitals provide for the indigent poor; and there is at least one such institution for sick or worn-out animals. The clock-

tower on the Delhi road, 80 feet in height, was erected in 1871 at the expense of Khán Bahádur Barjorji Merwánjí Frazer. The High School provides accommodation for 500 boys.

Municipality.—The municipal revenue in 1875 amounted to £20,435, and the expenditure to £23,171. The incidence of taxation was at the rate of 3s. 6¾d. per head of population. The municipality has opened a number of excellent roads, well lighted, paved, and watered. It has also constructed works for the protection of the city from floods, and for lessening the risk of fire. Systems of drainage, conservancy, and public markets have also been undertaken. No city in the Presidency, except Bombay, owes so much to its municipality as Surat.

Surat Agency, The.—A small group of Native States in Bombay, under the superintendence of the Political Agent, Surat. The group consists of the Sidi (Musalmán) Principality of SACHIN, comprising a number of isolated tracts within the British District of Surat; and the estates of the Rájás of BANSDA and DHARAMPUR, situated in the hilly tracts between the Districts of Khándesh, Násik, Thána (Tanna), and Surat.

Surgána.—One of the petty Bhíl States in Khándesh, Bombay.—*See* DANG STATES.

Surharpur.—*Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated in the south-east corner of the District, along both sides of the river Tons. Area, 94,519 acres, of which 48,400 are cultivated, 23,519 cultivable, and 22,600 uncultivable waste. A considerable portion of the area consists of saline *usár* tracts. Pop. (1869), 82,927. Government land revenue, £9817, or at the rate of 3s. 3¼d. per cultivable acre. Of the 233 villages comprising the *parganá*, 172½ are held under *tálukdárí* and 60½ under *zamíndárí* tenure. The principal landholders belong to Palwár and Rájkumár Kshattriya families, who own 145 of the *tálukdárí* villages, the remaining 28 being owned by Muhammadan Sayyids. The chief town, Surharpur, is now a place of small importance, with a population of 1474. It contains the ruins of an old Bhar fortress. Prior to annexation, the *parganá* contained a colony of 600 Muhammadan weaving families; but the industry has declined under the competition of European piece-goods, and there are now but 300 families of weavers, living in the small towns of Jalálpur and Nákpur.

Surí (*Sooree*).—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Bírbhúm District, Bengal; situated about 3 miles south of the Mor river, in lat. 23° 54′ 23″ N., and long. 87° 34′ 14″ E. Pop. (1872), 9001. The town is situated upon the summit and immediate extremity of a gravel ridge. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £355; rate of taxation, 8¾d. per head of population.

Surír.—Town in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Pro-

vinces; situated 1 mile east of the Jumna (Jamuná) river, in lat. 27° 46′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 45′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 5279, chiefly Thákurs or Rájputs, Banias, and Bairágis.

Surírpur.—Village in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 1′ 45″ N., and long. 77° 18′ E., 28 miles west of Meerut city. Pop. (1872), 5216, consisting of 4849 Hindus and 367 Muhammadans. The Eastern Jumna Canal waters the surrounding lands.

Surjyágarh.—Lofty hill of striking aspect in the north of the Ahírí chiefship, Chánda District, Central Provinces. About the year 1700, two chieftains, Sádhu Varya and Múla Varya, rebelled against King Rám Sháh, and fortified this hill, from which they plundered the country round. Rám Sháh then granted the tract now known as the Ahírí chiefship to his kinsman Kok Sá, who stormed Surjyágarh and killed the insurgent leaders.

Surjyanagar.—Capital of Kashmír State. *See* SRINAGAR.

Surmá.—The name given to the main branch of the BARAK river in Sylhet District, Assam. On entering Sylhet District from Cáchár, the Barák divides into two branches, which do not re-unite until they have both passed into Maimansinh District, Bengal. The more northerly of these two branches is the Surmá, which is navigable by steamers and large boats all the year through. The chief places on its banks are Sylhet town, Chhaták and Sonámganj, at which marts the limestone, potatoes, and oranges of the Khási Hills are collected for transmission to Bengal. The name of the Surmá valley is sometimes given to the two Districts of Sylhet and Cáchár, to mark them off from the Assam Districts in the Brahmaputra valley. The main channel of the Surmá separates Sylhet proper from the plains portion of the old State of Jáintia, annexed to Sylhet in 1835.

Sursatí (*Sarsuti*).—River in the Punjab.—*See* SARASWATI.

Surul.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal; situated in the south of the District, about 5 miles north of the Ajai river. Noteworthy as the site of a large and important Commercial Residency, and the centre of the Company's trade in Bírbhúm. During the latter years of the last century, from £45,000 to £65,000 was annually expended on mercantile investment at Surul. The first Commercial Resident, Mr. Cheap, who exercised magisterial powers, has left behind him the name of 'Cheap, the Magnificent.' He introduced indigo cultivation into the District, improved the manufacture of sugar by means of apparatus brought from Europe, and established a private firm, which still flourishes. When the Company gave up their commercial dealings, the Residency at Surul was abandoned, and the village allowed to fall into decay. The ruins crown the top of a small hill visible for miles.

Susang.—*Zamíndárí* or estate in Maimansinh District, Bengal; and

also the name of a *parganá* in the same District. Area, 451 square miles; land revenue, £2183. Court at Netrakoná. The *zamíndár* has the title of Mahárájá; his palace, a large but dilapidated building, is situated at Durgápur. Pop. (1872), about 1000.

Súsúmau.—Town in Unao District, Oudh. Lat. 26° 52′ N., long. 80° 19′ E.; pop. (1869), 1479, namely, 1463 Hindus and 16 Muhammadans, residing in 304 mud-built houses. Formerly the residence of Sayyid Mubárak Alí, whose name it bore—Mubárakpur. It afterwards fell into decay; and on the expulsion of the Sayyids by Karan Deo, it was reclaimed by Kanchan Sinh of the Janwár clan in the time of the Emperor Akbar. Situated on a level tract of ground; appearance pretty; climate healthy; water sweet; soil loam. Scene of a battle between Karan Deo and the Sayyids. Market for the sale of English cloth, bullocks, and vegetables, attended by about 700 persons. Manufacture of shoes, earthenware, and jewellery. Annual value of sales, £1000.

Susuniá.—Hill in Bánkurá District, Bengal; situated due west of Korá. It runs due east and west for 2 miles, its height being 1442 feet above sea level. Covered with heavy tree jungle, except on its south face, where it is quarried by the Bardwán Stone Company for building-stone.

Sutalia.—One of the guaranteed Girasia chiefships under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency. The chief, Sheodan Sinh, pays, under British guarantee, £340 to the chief of Rájgarh, within which State he holds a lease of twelve villages.

Suthumba.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. Estimated pop. (1875), 4000; estimated revenue, £600, of which £40 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £46 to Bálásinor, and £13 to Lunáwára. The chief, Thákur Ujab Sinh, is a Baria Kolí.

Sútí.—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated in the north-west of the District, on the Ganges, at the point where it is usually recognised that the Bhágirathí branches off. Lat. 24° 35′ 30″ N., long. 88° 6′ E. This spot has always been the scene of great fluvial changes; and the present village of Sútí is only in name identical with that which has attained celebrity in history as the scene of a severely contested battle, fought in 1763, between Mír Kásim, the Nawáb of Bengal, and the British army. In 1856, a large portion of Sútí was washed away by a flood.

Sutlej (*Satlaj*).—One of the 'Five Rivers' of the Punjab, from which the Province derives its name. Rises among the Himálayas in Chinese territory, about lat. 30° 8′ N., and long. 81° 53′ E. The interest of the Sutlej is to some extent absorbed in that of the INDUS, with which it eventually unites, and which is very fully treated in its alphabetical

place. The Sutlej, like the Indus, rises on the slopes of the sacred Kailás Mountain, the Elysium, or Siva's Paradise of ancient Sanskrit literature, with peaks estimated at 22,000 feet high. It is said to issue from the Mánasarowar (Mánasa-Sarovara) Lake, which plays so important a part in Sanskrit cosmogony. According to another account, it issues from another and larger lake called Rávana-hráda, or Rakas-tal, which lies close to Mánasarowar on the west. Mr. Trelawny Saunders states that it rises 'in the great lakes named Mánasarowar and Rakas-tal.' The truth seems to be that these are twin lakes, united with each other, and the Sutlej issues from the Rakas-tal, although its effluence from the lake is intermittent. (Colonel H. Yule, adopting Captain H. Strachey's account in *Jour. Geog. Soc.*, vol. xxiii., and in *Jour. Beng. Soc.*)

The Mánasarowar had, according to the Hindu mythology, the honour of being also the source of the Ganges, which, of course, is a mere myth. The Sutlej rises near the source, not only of the Indus, but of the Brahmaputra; and the Kailás Mountain is thus ascertained by modern investigations to have a real claim to the position which it holds in Sanskrit tradition as the Meeting-Place of Waters. The Brahmaputra, or rather the Tsan-pu, as it is known in Tibet, flows to the east, the Indus to the west, and the Sutlej to the south-west. Starting at an elevation of 15,200 feet high, the Sutlej first passes across the plain of Goge—a vast alluvial tract apparently formed from deposits which the river and its mountain-feeders have swept down from the Himálayas. It has scoured a passage across the plain in a channel said to be 4000 feet deep, between precipitous banks of alluvial soil. Near Shipki, the frontier Chinese outpost, the Sutlej turns sharp to the south, and commences its marvellous passage through the Himálayas. It pierces the southern chain of these great mountains through a gorge with heights of 20,000 feet on either side. At Shipki, its elevation is said to be 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. By the time the river has reached Rámpur, it has fallen to about 3000 feet, and at Biláspur, to a little over 1000 feet.

After entering British territory, the details of its course may be sketched as follows. For the first 200 miles, it runs through a wild and almost unpeopled mountain country. Receives the Li or river of Spiti near Dáblang. Thenceforth, the united stream takes a south-westerly direction, through Bashahr and the Simla Hill States, and on entering the British District of Hoshiárpur, takes a sudden southward bend round the spurs of the Siwálik Hills. Debouching upon the plains near Rupar, it divides Umballa (Ambála) District from Hoshiárpur, or the Jullundur (Jalandhar) Doáb from the Sirhind plateau. It next flows almost due west, between Jullundur on the north, and Umballa (Ambála), Ludhiána, and Firozpur on the south, till it receives the BEAS (Biás) at the south-western corner

of Kapurthála State (lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 75° 4′ E.). The united river thenceforward preserves an almost uniform south-westerly direction till its junction with the Indus. Its south-eastern shore is bordered by the Districts of Firozpur and Sírsa, and the sterile Native State of Baháwalpur; its north-western by the Bári Doáb, comprising parts of Lahore, Montgomery, and Múltán Districts. The whole of its course throughout the plains is fringed by a fertile lowland valley, confined at either side by high banks, which lead to the comparatively barren tablelands above; but the lower portion lies through a much less fruitful tract, partaking largely of the characteristics which mark the desert of Rájputána. Near Machiála, the Sutlej joins the TRIMAB, and the whole river then bears the name of the Panjnad; and finally falls into the Indus, after a total course of about 900 miles, near Mithánkot, at 258 feet above sea level. Like other rivers having their rise in the Himálayas, the Sutlej attains its greatest volume in June, July, and August. A railway bridge on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Line crosses the Sutlej at Phillour, and another carries across the Indus Valley State Railway near Baháwalpur. Steamers can ascend the river during the floods as far as Firozpur. The Sutlej has been identified with the *Ζαράδρος* (various reading *Ζαράδρης*) of Ptolemy; the Sydrus, or better reading Hesidrus, of Pliny.

Swarúpganj.—Town, with considerable river traffic, on the Jalangí river, in Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 25′ N., long. 88° 26′ 15″ E. Chief exports—grain, oil-seeds, and molasses.

Swát (the *Suastos* of the Greek geographers; Sanskrit, Suvastu).—River in Pesháwar District, Punjab. Rises beyond the British border on the eastern slopes of the mountains which divide Panjakora from Swát territory; receives the drainage of the entire Swát valley; enters Pesháwar District north of Michni, and finally joins the Kábul river at Nisatha. Below the Abazái fort, the Swát divides into several channels, which wind through rich meadows, their banks fringed with willow and poplar, till they ultimately reunite at Chársada, 3 miles above Nisatha. The Adozái branch of the Kábul river also joins the Swát at Chársada. The waters of the Swát are clear and cold; the bed is frequently choked with rocks, and the river at such points presents the appearance of a foaming torrent. Fordable at many places during the cold weather. Inundations rarely occur during the floods, owing to the large number of channels which carry off the surplus water.

Swatch of No Ground.—A great natural depression in the Bay of Bengal, lying off the Gangetic Delta, due south of the rivers RAIMANGAL and MALANCHA; extends north by east from lat. 21° to 21° 22′ N., 5 leagues in breadth, with its northern extremity about 5 leagues from the land and its western edge about 11 or 12 miles eastward of Ságar Sand. The interior of this basin has not yet been sounded; but on its northern

edge the depth of water is about 13 fathoms, decreasing to 3 fathoms towards the land; the other parts of its circumference show a general depth of 20 to 40 fathoms. 'Its sides are so steep and well defined,' says Mr. J. Fergusson, in a paper on 'Recent Changes in the Delta of the Ganges' (published in the *Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society* for August 1863), 'that it affords mariners the best possible sea-mark; the lead suddenly dropping, especially on its western face, from 5 and 10 to 200 and even 300 fathoms, with no ground.' Mr. Fergusson does not consider that the sinking is due to volcanic agency, but attributes it to the action of rotatory tides in the bay. This action is strictly analogous to that of the phenomenon known as the 'bore,' which exists to a greater or less extent in all funnel-shaped tidal estuaries. Two circular tides, formed at the mouth of the Húglí, meet in the bay. The consequence seems to be, says Mr. Fergusson, that they must do one of two things—either they must throw up a bar between them or they must scoop out a depression. The first would be the action of two rivers, the velocity of whose currents was diminished or stopped by contact with the ocean; the latter is the probable action of the tides as they actually exist, and is sufficient to account for the formation of the depression.

Syámbázár.—Town in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated a few miles south of the Ajai river, in lat. 23° 35′ 10″ N., and long. 87° 32′ 5″ E. Pop. (1872), 19,635, viz. 9578 males and 10,057 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £198; rate of taxation, 3⅛d. per head of population (14,696) within municipal limits. Syámbázár has an old *sarái* (native inn), dated 1125 A.H.

Syámnagar.—River-side village in the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, and a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 18½ miles from Calcutta. A short distance east of the station are the ruins of an old fort, surrounded by a moat about 4 miles in circumference, built in the last century by a Rájá of Bardwán as a refuge from the Marhattás; it now belongs to the Tagore family, Calcutta, and is protected by thick date plantations.

Sydapet.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras.—*See* SAIDAPET.

Sylhet (*Srihatta*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of Assam, lying between 25° 12′ and 23° 58′ 42″ N. lat., and between 91° and 92° 37′ 40″ E. long. It contains an area, according to recent survey, of 5440·20 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1872, of 1,719,539 souls. The administrative headquarters are at SYLHET TOWN, on the right bank of the Surmá river, in 24° 53′ 22″ N. lat., and 91° 54′ 40″ E. long.

Sylhet District is bounded north by the District of the Khási and Jáintia Hills; east by Cáchár; south by the State of Hill Tipperah

and the Bengal District of Tipperah; west by the Bengal District of Maimansinh.

History.—Sylhet, lying in a remote corner of Bengal, was one of the last conquests made by the Muhammadans. Even at the present day, many special features in the administration mark its character as a frontier District. Since September 1874, it has been annexed to the Chief Commissionership of Assam; but in the ethnological character of its population, as well as in its history, it forms an integral portion of Eastern Bengal. In early times, this tract of country was divided among the following three petty States:—(1) Gor, (2) Laur, and (3) Jáintia. The local tradition of the arrival of Bráhmans from Bengal in the time of King Adisur would seem to indicate that the inhabitants of these three States were of aboriginal descent, and that Hinduism was introduced among them at a comparatively late period. The subsequent conversion of half the population to Islám points in the same direction. The Muhammadans first invaded the District towards the close of the 14th century, when the Afghán King Shámsud-dín was ruling over Bengal with his capital at the city of GAUR. The invaders were led by a *fákír* or religious fanatic called Sháh Jalál, whose miraculous powers are said to have effected more than the swords of his followers in overthrowing the local Hindu dynasty then represented by Gaur Gobind. The secular leader of the Musalmáns was Sikandar Ghází; but his reputation is quite eclipsed by that of Sháh Jalál, whose tomb in Sylhet town is still a frequented place of pilgrimage. The only portion of Sylhet conquered at this time was the territory of Gor, which was placed under the charge of a Nawáb. The chief of Laur retained his independence until the reign of the Emperor Akbar, when Bengal passed under the rule of the Mughals. The last Hindu Rájá of Laur, also called Gobind, was summoned by Akbar to Delhi, and there became a convert to the faith of Islám. He submitted to undertake the defence of the frontier, but did not pay tribute. His grandson removed his residence to Baniáchang in the first half of the 18th century. At about the same period a tribute of forty-eight large boats was imposed upon him by Alí Vardí Khán, the Nawáb of Murshidábád; and subsequently three-fourths of his estates were assessed. The *zamíndárí* of Baniáchang has now passed out of the hands of his descendants.

When the British obtained possession of the *díwání* of Bengal in 1765, Jáintia was still independent. Sylhet proper was governed by officers called *amíls*, directly subordinate to the Nawáb of Dacca. The system of administration was modelled after the necessities of a frontier District. The land assessment was light; and colonies of Muhammadan soldiery were posted along the border, who held their villages without payment of revenue on a sort of feudal tenure. During the early years

of British administration, Sylhet was much neglected. The population was turbulent, means of communication were difficult, and all the arts of civilisation were very backward. Raids on the part of the border tribes and insurrections of the Musalmán inhabitants demanded the continual presence of a body of troops, whose existence is still continued in the Regiment of Sylhet Light Infantry. The soil is extremely fertile, and in ordinary years yields abundant crops of rice. But in those early days the channels of trade were not open. A good harvest so depressed prices in the local markets that the cultivators were rendered unable to pay their revenue to Government. On the other hand, disastrous floods were of common occurrence, and in a few days changed plenty into the extremity of famine. A vivid picture of the condition of the country at the end of the 18th century is quoted from the *Lives of the Lindsays*, as an Appendix to my *Statistical Account of Sylhet.*

The territory of the Rájá of Jáintia was confiscated in 1835, in consequence of his complicity in the forcible seizure of certain British subjects, who were barbarously sacrificed at the shrine of Kálí. The Rájá, Indra Sinh, was granted a pension of £600 a year, and he resided peaceably in Sylhet until his death in 1861. The plains portion of his territory, extending from the foot of the hills to the Surmá river, was annexed to Sylhet District, while the remainder now constitutes the Jáintia Hills Subdivision of the Khási Hills. Since that date, the District has undergone no historical changes, until it was annexed in 1874 to the Chief Commissionership of Assam. The only troubles of the administration have arisen from the confusion in which the land settlement is involved. The Permanent Settlement of 1793 was in name extended to Sylhet, and the annual revenue was fixed at 1,519,450 *káháns* of *kauris*, or approximately £32,415. But only about one-third of the total area of the District was then under cultivation, and the remaining two-thirds were expressly excluded from the Settlement. No actual survey, however, was made; and it was soon discovered that the landlords or *mirásdárs* in the cultivated tract claimed to exercise rights of property over the adjoining jungle. This claim has been persistently opposed by the Government, and has given rise to the historical dispute about the *ilám* lands, which began in 1802 and was finally terminated by a decision of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal in 1869. The *ilám* lands represent the difference between the total area of the District and that portion assessed by the Permanent Settlement. Hitherto these lands have been settled for short periods and on easy terms with the occupants; but for the future it has been determined to assess them at full rates, and in perpetuity. The land settlement in the Jáintia plains is made with the cultivators themselves for a term of twenty years, and it is not proposed to disturb the old system in that portion of the District.

Physical Aspects.—Sylhet consists of the lower valley of the Surmá or Barák river—a rich alluvial tract about 70 miles wide, bounded north and south by high mountains, and opening westwards to the plain of Lower Bengal. The greater part of the District is a uniform level, only broken by clusters of sandy hillocks called *tilás*, and intersected by a network of rivers and drainage channels. During the rainy season—from June to October—the torrents that pour down from the surrounding hills convert the entire surface into a sea of water, amid which the raised village sites appear as islands, and the only means of communication is by boat. The banks of the rivers, as is the case in all alluvial tracts, are raised by the annual flood deposits to a higher level than that of the surrounding country. The low strip of land lying beneath is every year subject to a protracted inundation, and is usually left to weeds and grass. Farther back, as the surface gradually rises, the soil is under continuous rice cultivation. The village sites are embowered in groves of bamboos, palms, and other trees. The soil is for the most part a blue clay, which turns to black on the borders of the swamps or *háors*, as they are locally termed.

In the south of the District, eight low ranges of hills run out into the plain, being spurs of the Tipperah Mountains. The highest is about 1500 feet above sea level. There is also a small detached group, the Ita Hills, in the centre of the District. The *tilás* or sandy hillocks, which are scattered all over the valley, rise to a height of nearly 80 feet in the neighbourhood of Sylhet town. For the most part they are overgrown with grass jungle, but some have recently been cleared for the cultivation of tea. The river system of Sylhet is constituted by the BARAK or SURMA, with its many tributaries and offshoots. This river enters the District from Cáchár, and forthwith bifurcates into two branches. The main branch, or the Surmá, flows beneath the hills bordering the north of the District; the minor branch, or the Kusiára, runs in a south-westerly direction across the District; and the two again unite on the south-western boundary, to fall into the estuary of the Meghná under the name of the Dhaleswarí. Both are navigable by large boats and support a busy traffic. The river steamers pass up the Surmá into Cáchár, and this river also brings down the limestone and other products of the Khási Hills. Two short canals or artificial water-courses have been cut in recent years to facilitate navigation. There are now no embankments in the District to protect the fields against flood, those that formerly existed having been suffered to fall into decay about fifty years ago. It is argued that the land benefits more from the silt deposited during inundations, than it used to do from any artificial interference with the natural lines of drainage.

Coal has been discovered in Sylhet, but the coal-field has not

yet been examined. The northern hills yield an inexhaustible supply of limestone, but the principal quarries lie within the jurisdiction of the Khási Hills. The most valuable timber is found in the south-east of the District, where a tract covering 273 square miles has been declared as 'Forest Reserves.' Other wild products are lac, beeswax, honey, and a perfume called *agar attar* prepared from the resinous sap of the *pitákará* tree (Aquilaria agalocha), which is exported as far as Arabia and Turkey. The wild animals comprise elephants, tigers, buffaloes, bison, and several varieties of deer. The rhinoceros has not been seen of late years. Wild elephants are captured in *khedás* or stockades, chiefly in the south-east of the District, for the Government Commissariat Department. The rivers abound in fish, and the drying of fish forms an important industry. Excellent *máhsir* fishing is to be had in the rivers issuing from the northern hills.

People.—In 1853, the total population of Sylhet District was estimated at 1,393,050. The regular Census of 1872, the first enumeration that has any pretension to accuracy, disclosed a total of 1,719,539 persons, dwelling in 5589 villages and in 286,594 houses. The area was taken at 5283 square miles, showing an average density of 319 persons to the square mile. The average number of persons in each village is 308, and of persons in each house, 6. Classified according to sex, there are 880,330 males and 839,209 females; proportion of males, 51·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—353,624 boys and 286,443 females; total children, 540,067, or 37·3 per cent. of the population. The total number of persons afflicted with certain infirmities is 4911, or 0·2085 per cent. The returns showing the occupations of the people are not trustworthy, but it may be mentioned that the cultivators number 301,844, or 57 per cent. of the adult male population. The ethnical classification gives the following results:—Europeans, 43, and Eurasians, 8; non-Indian Asiatics, 5974; aboriginal tribes, 11,515; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 170,881; Hindus divided according to caste, 676,987; Muhammadans, 854,131. The frontier hill tribes are represented by 5715 Manipurís, 3108 Tipperahs, 2755 Khásiás, 2505 Kukis or Lusháis, and 1188 Hájangs. Among Hindus, the higher castes are fairly numerous, as also are the low castes found in the Gangetic delta; and generally speaking, as compared with the rest of Assam, there is a conspicuous absence of the castes predominant in the valley of the Brahmaputra or even in Northern Bengal. The two most numerous castes are the Kaibartta (134,523) and the Chandál (117,457). The boating and fishing castes in the aggregate number 54,001; the weaving castes, 86,097. The Bráhmans number 46,967; the Rájputs, only 2768; the Khatrís or traders from the north-west, 7104; the Káyasths or clerks, 90,042; the Sunrís, who are a respected caste in Sylhet, 29,095. Divided according to

religion, the population is composed of Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 859,234, or 50 per cent.; Muhammadans, 854,131, or 49·7 per cent.; Christians, 159; 'others,' 6015, or 0·3 per cent. The majority of the Hindus belong to the Vaishnav sect, though the Census Report only returns 7997 Vaishnavs. These are perhaps to be regarded as the professed adherents of the Kisári-bhajan sect, identical with the Kartá-bhájás of Bengal. There are several frequented places of Hindu pilgrimages in the District, including two temples in the territory of Jáintia where human sacrifices used to be offered up to the beginning of the present century. The Bráhma Samáj, or theistic sect of Hindus, has three communities in the District, of which the one established at Sylhet town counts about fifty members. It is said that the Musalmáns, in point of social rank, take precedence over the Hindus, but the faith of Islám has now ceased to make converts. Many of the Muhammadans have recently joined the reforming sect of Faráizís, and there may be some Wahábí sympathizers among the well-to-do classes. Out of the total number of 159 Christians, 108 are native converts.

Urban life is entirely undeveloped in Sylhet. Out of 5589 villages enumerated in the Census Report of 1872, as many as 4654 have each less than 500 inhabitants. The only place in the District with a population of more than 5000 is SYLHET TOWN, which is also the only municipality; pop. (1872), 16,846; municipal revenue (1876-77), including ferry tolls, £1769; rate of taxation proper, 1s. per head. Sylhet town conducts a large trade by water. The following twelve villages, mostly situated on the Surmá or Kusiára rivers, are also important trading marts:—(1) Chhaták, (2) Sonámganj, (3) Azmeríganj, (4) Báláganj, (5) Habíganj, (6) Nabíganj, (7) Bahádúrpur, (8) Karímganj, (9) Shamsherganj, (10) Gobindganj, (11) Mutíganj, (12) Doháliá.

Agriculture.—The one staple crop cultivated throughout the District is rice, which yields three harvests in the year—(1) *áus*, sown on low-lying lands in March and April, and reaped in July and August; (2) *kátáriá*, sown on marshy lands early in July, and reaped in October and November; (3) *áman* or *sáil*, sown on comparatively high lands in March and April, transplanted in the following months, and reaped in December and January. This last harvest furnishes by far the largest proportion of the food supply. The other crops include—mustard, linseed, and *til* or sesamum, grown as oil-seeds; *chiná*, a variety of millet, cultivated chiefly in the west of the District as a substitute for rice; several kinds of pulses, jute, sugar-cane; and cotton, grown in patches amid the jungle by the hill tribes. Out of the total area of the District, 2,386,560 acres or 69 per cent. are returned as cultivated, and an additional 827,520 acres or 23 per cent. as capable of cultivation, leaving

256,000 acres or 8 per cent. as uncultivable waste. About two-thirds of the total cultivated area are permanently under rice. The out-turn is estimated at from 11 to 17 cwts. of paddy or unhusked rice per acre. It is stated that the produce of the rice-fields has steadily diminished in recent years, owing to the damage caused by floods. Oxen are almost exclusively employed in agriculture, though a few buffaloes imported from Manipur are found in the south of the District. Manure, in the form of oil-cake and cow-dung, is applied only to sugar-cane lands; irrigation is rarely practised, and fields are never allowed to lie fallow for any length of time. The system of land tenure prevailing in Sylhet differs both from that in Bengal, and also from the *mauzáwári* of Assam. The greater part of the cultivated land is permanently settled, but the tenants of Government are not wealthy landholders like the *zamíndárs* of Bengal, but peasant proprietors locally known as *mirásdárs*. The strict Sale Law of Bengal has not been enforced against revenue defaulters, and consequently the subdivision of landed property, or rather of the rights in land, has been encouraged to an excessive degree. But on the whole, the cultivators of Sylhet, owing partly to the fertility of the soil, and partly to the moderation of the assessment, occupy a position of comparative comfort. Intermediate tenures between the *mirásdár* and the actual cultivator are very rare. Where land is rented out, the rent for rice land varies from 12s. to 1s. 4d. an acre.

Both blight and flood are more dreaded in Sylhet than drought. Within the memory of the present generation, the winter of 1869-70 has been the only occasion when the rainfall was so deficient as to affect the general harvest. Inundations take place every year over a considerable tract of country; and it is thought that the flood water does more good than harm, by depositing fresh silt on the exhausted fields. There is some local demand for embankments, but their construction is a matter of doubtful advantage. During 1866-67, the year of the Orissa famine, the price of rice rose to 10s. 8d. a cwt. The people mainly depend upon the *áman* harvest for their food supply; and if that were to fail, the two other rice harvests would be inadequate to supply the deficiency. In ordinary years, Sylhet is able to export large quantities of its surplus grain to Bengal, Cáchár, and the Khási Hills.

Trade, etc.—Sylhet is celebrated for several special manufactures. The Manipurí women settled in the District weave cotton cloths called *Manipuri khesh*, also handkerchiefs and mosquito curtains, of fine quality and tastefully embroidered with silk. The Manipurí men are the best carpenters in the country. At the village of Lashkarpur, there is a small colony of Musalmáns, who inlay iron weapons with silver and brass scroll-work. But the specialities of Sylhet, known throughout

India, are *sítalpátí* mats, ivory and shell carving, *pukálá* work or lac inlaid with feathers and talc, and pottery. All these industries are pursued with much skill and elegance, and the artisans command large prices for their wares. Local trade is conducted chiefly at permanent markets, situated on the banks of the large rivers. The external commerce of Sylhet, both with Bengal and with the neighbouring Districts of Assam, is very considerable. The Bengal registration returns for 1876-77 show a total export from Sylhet valued at £597,500, against imports valued at £490,755. These figures unavoidably include some portion of the trade of the Districts that lie beyond, but at the same time they omit the rice, etc. of Sylhet exported to those Districts. The chief items on the export side are—tea, 2,856,480 lbs., valued at £285,648, evidently including much grown in Cáchár; lime and limestone, 1,053,759 *maunds*, valued at £79,032, almost entirely from the Khási Hills; rice and paddy, 647,900 *maunds*, valued at £86,270; vegetables, £36,932; oil-seeds, £22,730; fruits and nuts, £19,351; jute, £8093; mats, £3927. The imports include—European piece-goods, £144,726; salt, £112,800; sugar, £29,020; tobacco, £26,800; spices, £22,655. The tea and cotton goods are carried by the river steamers; all the heavy commodities go in country boats. Almost the only means of communication is by water. There are no regular roads outside the limits of Sylhet town. In 1875-76, the aggregate length of the navigable rivers was returned at 800 miles; and of the roads, and those all second class, at only 91 miles.

Tea Cultivation occupies a subordinate position in Sylhet, as compared with the neighbouring District of Cáchár. The tea-plant was first discovered growing wild in 1856, and the oldest garden now existing dates from the following year. Ever since the season of excessive speculation that reached its crisis in 1865, the business of tea cultivation and manufacture in Sylhet has improved steadily and rapidly year by year. Statistics for 1875, as furnished by twenty-three gardens, show a total area of 26,612 acres taken up for tea, of which 4446 acres were covered by mature plant; the aggregate out-turn was 470,748 lbs., or an average of 111 lbs. per acre under mature plant. In the previous year, the average monthly number of labourers employed was 3109, of whom 462 had been imported under contract from Bengal.

Administration.—The fiscal and executive administration of the District is vested in a Deputy Commissioner, who must be a member of the covenanted service. The judicial department is entrusted to a Civil and Sessions Judge, whose jurisdiction extends also over Cáchár. For purposes of forest conservancy, Sylhet and Cáchár form one Division under a Deputy Conservator. For the ordinary work of administration, Sylhet is divided into 4 Subdivisions, but these have not yet been supplied with offices. The District is further divided into 16

thánás or police circles, and into 186 *parganás* or fiscal divisions. In 1875-76, the number of magisterial and revenue courts was 7, and of civil courts 9; there were 5 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, of whom some were engaged on settlement work.

In 1870-71, the total revenue of the District amounted to £88,120, against an expenditure of £38,406. The chief items on the revenue side were—land tax, £48,761; stamps, £16,263; excise, £8679. The regular District police force in 1872 consisted of a total strength of 579 officers and men, maintained at an aggregate cost of £10,573. These figures show 1 policeman to every 9·29 square miles or to every 2969 persons, maintained at a cost of £1, 19s. 3⅜d. per square mile and 1½d. per head of population. In addition, there was a municipal force in Sylhet town, numbering 45 officers and men, and maintained at a cost of £342; and a body of *chaukídárs* or rural police, numbering 4156 men, supported by doles from the landholders, or by lands held rent free, at a total estimated cost of £9974. In 1872, a total number of 7689 criminal cases were investigated, and 5796 persons were put upon their trial, of whom 2793, or 48·19 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence of some kind or another to every 615 of the population. The jail statistics for that year show a daily average of 410·33 prisoners, including 6·35 females, being 1 person always in jail to every 4190 of the population. The total cost of the jail amounted to £2008, or an average of £4, 17s. 11½d. per prisoner. The accounts of the manufacturing department disclose a net loss of £6, 14s. 11d.

Until within recent years, education had not made much progress in Sylhet. But the introduction of Sir G. Campbell's reforms in 1872, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools, has acted as a great stimulus to primary instruction. In the year 1870-71, there were only 15 schools in the District, attended by 879 pupils. By the close of 1874-75 these numbers had risen to 255 schools and 7025 pupils, showing 1 school to every 21·09 square miles, and 4·05 pupils to every thousand of the population. The total expenditure in 1872-73 amounted to £1370, of which Government contributed £570. The principal educational institution in the District is the Government English School at Sylhet, which is described as the most successful of its class in Assam. In 1874-75, it was attended by 330 pupils, of whom 86 were Musalmáns. To promote Muhammadan education, this school receives an annual grant of £80 from the Mohsin endowment. The Sylhet municipality also supports, at its own cost, two Muhammadan *maktabs*. The Normal School, founded in 1873, was attended in the following year by 21 *gúrús*, whose expenses are entirely defrayed by Government.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sylhet is excessively damp and

trying to Europeans. The rainy season generally lasts from April to October, and the remaining months are regarded as constituting the cold weather. The rainfall is very heavy, and has the effect of tempering the heat. In 1870, the maximum temperature recorded was 96° F., the minimum 46°. During the five years ending 1876, the average annual rainfall was 159·26 inches. The earthquake of January 10, 1869, of which the centre of disturbance was at Cáchár, was severely felt in Sylhet. The church and other buildings in the town were considerably damaged; and in many parts of the District the surface of the ground was rent into fissures, and the channels of the larger rivers were sensibly altered.

The chief epidemic disease in Sylhet is malarious fever. Dysentery and diarrhœa are also prevalent, as well as many cutaneous disorders; outbreaks of both cholera and small-pox are common. In 1874, out of the total number of deaths reported to the police, nearly one-half were assigned to cholera. The general returns of vital statistics are absolutely untrustworthy. The registration system in selected areas during 1874 showed a death-rate of 35 per thousand in the urban area, which is coincident with the limits of Sylhet town; and 34·6 per thousand in the rural area. Throughout the District no regard is paid to the most ordinary rules of conservancy; and the sanitary condition even of Sylhet town is most deplorable. Drinking water is obtained from rivers and tanks, rarely from wells. There is but one charitable dispensary in the District, at Sylhet town. In 1874, it was attended by 331 in-door and 3814 out-door patients; the total expenditure was £117, towards which Government contributed £48.

Sylhet.—Chief town of the District of the same name, Assam; situated on the right or north bank of the Surmá river, in lat. 24° 53′ 22″ N., and long. 91° 54′ 40″ E. Pop. (1872), 16,846; municipal revenue (1876-77), £1769, including £1056 from ferry tolls; rate of taxation proper, 1s. per head. The area included within municipal limits is 13·18 square miles. The houses of the European residents are scattered along the river bank for a distance of about 2 miles. Besides the usual public offices, there is a handsome church. The native quarter lies behind, overgrown with vegetation, and intersected by open sewers. The river water is commonly used for drinking purposes. In 1874, the total number of deaths registered was 590, of which 144 were assigned to fevers and 119 to cholera; average death-rate, 35 per thousand. The Muhammadans number 8089, or nearly half the total population. The mosque of Sháh Jalál, a *fakír* whose miraculous powers contributed greatly to the Musalmán conquest of the country, attracts pilgrims from great distances. There is a small colony of native Christians, converted by a Protestant Mission established in 1850. No missionary is now resident. Sylhet town is

an important centre of river trade, and also of manufacturing industry. The chief exports are rice, cotton, hides, horns, *sítalpáti* mats, leaf-umbrellas, ornaments, etc.; the imports are cotton goods, salt, hardware, sugar, pulses, spices, silk, etc. The Bengal registration returns for 1876-77 show an export of 16,200 *maunds* of rice, and 23,700 *maunds* of paddy; and an import of £62,600 of piece-goods. The principal articles of manufacture are *sítalpáti* mats, ornaments of carved ivory and shell, *morás* or bamboo stools, and *petárás* or trunks for clothes made of cane. The Muhammadan festival of the *'Id*, at the time of the *Muharram*, is marked by a fair lasting for two days, when toys, cheap ornaments, and sweetmeats are sold. The site of the town is placed on the land-roll of the District as a revenue-free estate, called *Kasbá Sylhet.* The claim to exemption, which has never been formally recognised by Government, is based upon a *sanad* or grant from a Mughal Emperor of Delhi. In 1869, Sylhet was visited by a violent shock of earthquake, which did great damage to the church and other buildings.

Synthia.—Town in Bírbhúm District, Bengal. Station on the East Indian Railway, 119 miles distant from Howrah, and rapidly rising place; connected with Surí by a good road.

Syriam (or *Than-lyeng*).—A Subdivision of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It comprises the Than-lyeng and An-gyí townships, the former of which lies south of the Pegu river, and east of the Hlaing river; the latter extends from the Pan-hlaing river to the sea. Headquarters at Kyouk-tan, which contains a court-house and police station; pop. (1877), 407.

Syriam (or *Than-lyeng*).—Township in the above Subdivision of Rangoon District, British Burma. Comprises ten revenue circles. Pop. (1877), 56,141; gross revenue, £44,211. Headquarters at SYRIAM TOWN.

Syriam (or *Than-lyeng*).—Old town in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 42′ 30″ N., and long. 96° 21′ 5″ E., on the left bank of the Pegu river, and about 3 miles from its mouth. Pop. (1877), 1733. Burmese traditions allege that Syriam was founded in 587 B.C. by Ze-ya-the-na, and that about fifty years later it was called Than-lyeng, after a usurper who dethroned the son of Ze-ya-the-na. Little or nothing is known of the place from that time until the beginning of the 17th century. Towards the close of the previous century, the King of Arakan, taking advantage of the quarrels between the Kings of Toung-ngú, Ava, and Pegu, and the destruction of the last-named monarchy by the first, obtained possession of Pegu, aided by the Portuguese under Philip de Brito y Nicote, to whom, as a reward, was given the town of Than-lyeng. In a short time the King of Arakan found reason to regret his liberality; but his endeavours

to drive out the Portuguese were unsuccessful. In 1613, Than-lyeng was besieged and captured by the King of Ava. Nicote was impaled alive, and all the Portuguese whose lives were spared were sent as slaves to the capital, where a few of their descendants exist to this day. In 1631, the Dutch were allowed to establish a factory at Than-lyeng, which they retained till 1677, according to Valentyn; but Dalrymple states that both English and Dutch were expelled some years earlier. The date of the foundation of the English factory is not known. In 1698, however, it was re-established, and Mr. Bowyear placed in charge by the authorities at Madras. In 1740, the Peguans or Talaings expelled the Burmese and captured Than-lyeng, without harming the English or other residents. In 1743, the Burmese retook the town, but held it for three days only, when the Peguans returned, expelled the Burmese, and burnt the English factory to the ground. Nothing now remains of the once flourishing Portuguese, Dutch, and English factories except the substantial ruins of an old church situated outside the old walls, some tombs, and the foundations of a few masonry houses. A full description of the church (built by Monseigneur Nerini, the second Vicar-Apostolic of Ava and Pegu, and a member of the Barnabite Mission) is given in the *Life of Monseigneur G. M. Percoto*, Missionary to the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu, and Bishop of Massulis. The Barnabite Mission was established in 1722, and continued to flourish till about 1754. In 1756, the Bishop was murdered by the Burmese conqueror Aloung-bhúra, then besieging Than-lyeng, because he was suspected of complicity with the Peguans. From that year till 1760, the mission remained destitute, and was then removed to Rangoon.

The Myo-úk or Governor of Than-lyeng during the first Burmese war of 1824-25 was Moung Tsat, whose sister was married to Bhadún-meng, fourth son of Aloungbhúra. After the capture of Rangoon by the British troops, he collected a considerable force, and commenced fortifying Than-lyeng, and erecting works to command the entrance to the river. On the 4th August 1824, a body of about 600 men was sent to dislodge him. The storming party was received with a sharp fire, but the Burmese evacuated the place before the escalade. The British did not retain possession of the town, and it was occupied in December by a portion of the Burmese army which had been investing Rangoon. But on the 11th of February 1825, Than-lyeng was once more occupied by the British. Shortly after the signing of the treaty of Yandabú (February 1826), the Talaings, under Moung Tsat, made an attempt to regain their ancient kingdom. They were joined by the Karengs; and their leader, the Myo-úk of Than-lyeng, assumed the title of king. The British remained strictly neutral; and after some fighting in and round

Rangoon, a force arrived from Ava, and the Peguans retreated to Than-lyeng, and, in 1827, the leaders escaped to Tenasserim. Since this event, nothing of importance has occurred in the town.

T

Ta-da.—River in British Burma.—*See* Toung-gnyo.

Tadiándamol.—Highest peak in the chain of the Western Gháts in the territory of Coorg, 5729 feet above the sea. Lat. 12° 13′ N., long 75° 40′ E. The ascent is not difficult; two-thirds may be achieved on horseback, the remainder on foot. The view from the summit is magnificent.

Tádpatri (*Tadputry*, *Tádaparti*).—Town in Bellary District, Madras, and an important station on the Madras Railway; situated in lat. 14° 55′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 2′ 25″ E., on the right bank of the Penner (Ponniyár). Pop. (1871), 8312, living in 1818 houses. Thriving trade in silk, cotton, and indigo. In 1875, the railway carried 43,000 passengers to and from the station, and 5309 tons of goods. The town was founded by Rámalingam Nayudu, one of the Vijayanagar governors, 400 years ago. He also built the fine temple dedicated to Ráma Iswara. Another temple (dedicated to Chintáráya) on the river bank was built by Timma Nayudu. These two temples are elaborately decorated with sculptures representing the adventures of Krishna, Ráma, and other mythological personages. Among the bas-reliefs is a figure holding a Grecian bow. The temple on the river bank is by far the finer, but was never finished. The *gopura* of the other temple was struck by lightning about thirty years ago, and split in two. After the battle of Tálikot, the country round Tádpatri was subdued by the forces of the Kutab Sháhi dynasty, and a Muhammadan governor was appointed. Afterwards, the town was captured by Morári Ráo, and still later by Haidar Alí. The site of Tádpatri lies low, and part of the town is frequently under water. The main street is narrow and straight, with substantially built houses.

Tádri.—Port in North Kánara District, Bombay. Lat. 14° 31′ 30″ N., long. 74° 24′ E. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £3659; exports, £3014.

Ta-gay.—Revenue circle in the Gnyoung-dún township of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 103 square miles. Pop. (1877-78), 8246; gross revenue (1876-77), £2742.

Ta-gnyek.—Revenue circle in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2689; gross revenue, £905.

Ta-goung-nek.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 132 square

miles, of which about 122 consist of hilly and uncultivable land. Chief products—rice, sesamum, cotton, chillies, cutch, and silk. Pop. (1876-77), 2804; gross revenue, £344.

Taik-kú-la.—Revenue circle in the Tsit-toung Subdivision of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 144 square miles. Pop. (1876-77), 3920; gross revenue, £1029. Salt is made in considerable quantities.

Taingapatam.—Town in Travancore State, Madras; situated on the coast at the mouth of a river of the same name. Lat. 8° 14′ N., long. 77° 14′ E. The population here and in the neighbourhood comprises (according to Thornton) many native Christians of the Syrian Church.

Tájpur.—Subdivision of Darbhangah District, Bengal, lying between 25° 28′ 15″ and 26° 2′ N. lat., and between 85° 30′ and 86° 4′ E. long. Area, 747 square miles; number of villages, 957; houses, 84,212. Pop. (1872), 638,717, of whom 580,618, or 90·7 per cent., were Hindus; 57,891, or 9·3 per cent., Muhammadans; 136 Christians; and 72 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 49·3 per cent.; average pressure of population per square mile, 855; average number of villages per square mile, 1·28; persons per village, 667; houses per square mile, 113; persons per house, 7·6. This Subdivision consists of the 2 police circles (*thánás*) of Tájpur and Dalsinhsarái. In 1870, it had 1 court, a police force of 35 men, and 1243 village watchmen; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £1011.

Tájpur.—Headquarters of the Tájpur Subdivision of Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the Dalsinhsarái road, 24 miles from Muzaffarpur, in lat. 25° 51′ 33″ N., and long. 85° 43′ E. Pop. (1872), 1211. Dispensary, school, distillery, and a *munsíf's* court; inhabited chiefly by court officials, *mukhtars*, etc. The river Bálan, which flows out of the Jamwárí, passes the village on the west.

Takht-i-Suláimán (*Solomon's Seat*).—Mountain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, close to the city of Srínagar, on the eastern side. Described by Thornton as a mass of eruptive trap, situated in lat. 34° 4′ N., and long. 74° 53′ E. On the summit stands a massive Buddhist temple, bearing every mark of great antiquity, but now converted into a mosque. Elevation above sea level, 6950 feet.

Takht-i-Suláimán.—Principal peak of the Suláimán Mountains, on the frontier between the Punjab and Afghánistán. Has two separate summits, respectively 11,317 and 11,076 feet above sea level. Stands nearly due west of Derá Ismáil Khán. A barren and rugged mountain, the sides consisting of precipitous cliffs.

Takhtpur.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 8′ N., and long. 81° 54′ 30″ E., on the Mandla road, 20

miles west of Biláspur town. Founded about 1690 by Takht Sinh, Rájá of Ratanpur, to whom are attributed the remains of a brick palace, and a temple of Mahádeva. Estimated pop. (1868), nearly 5000. Takhtpur has a good school, a well attended weekly market, and a police post.

Ta-khwon-daing.—Revenue circle in the Gyaing Attaran township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2486; land revenue, £122; and capitation tax, £269.

Táki.—Municipal town in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 35′ 27″ N., and long. 88° 57′ 50″ E., on the Jamuná river, in Sátkhirá Subdivision. Pop. (1872), 4443, viz. 2111 males and 2332 females. Municipal income (1876-77), £207; incidence of taxation, 9⅛d. per head of population (5261) within municipal limits. Police, 16 men. A boat-halting station, and the seat of a considerable trade in rice. Branch dispensary.

Taki (*Tsekia*).—Village in Gujránwála District, Punjab.—*See* ASARUR.

Takwára.—Town or cluster of villages in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 9′ N., and long. 70° 40′ E., 27 miles north-west of Derá Ismáil Khán town. Pop. (1868), 6800, consisting of 348 Hindus, 6298 Muhammadans, 101 Síkhs, and 53 'others.' Purely agricultural community of Gandapurs and Játs. Supplies procurable; water usually derived from hill streams, and always to be obtained by digging from 12 to 14 feet in bed of ravine.

Tálá.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal. An old police station, but at present a police outpost, on the Kabadak. Seat of considerable trade, and large sugar mart.

Talágang.—*Tahsíl* of Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab; comprising the whole western portion of the District, and intersected by the spurs of the Salt Range.

Talágang.—Municipal town in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the Talágang *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 32° 55′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 27′ E., 80 miles north-west of Jhelum town. Pop. (1868), 5675. Founded by an Awán chieftain, about the year 1625, it has ever since remained the seat of local administration under the Awáns, the Síkhs, and the British. Healthily situated on a dry plateau, well drained by ravines. Extensive trade in grain, the staple product of the neighbourhood. Manufacture of shoes worked with tinsel, worn by the Punjab women, and largely exported to distant places. Striped cotton stuff (*súsi*) is also made in considerable quantities, both for home use and for exportation. *Tahsíl* and police station, situated in an old mud fort, the former residence of the Síkh *kárdár*. School, branch dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £192, or 8d. per head of population (5658) within municipal limits.

Tálágáon.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar.—*See* TALEGAON.

Ta-laing-gún.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division,

British Burma. A hilly and forest-covered tract, traversed throughout its whole length by the North Na-weng river. Products—cotton, tobacco, sesamum, and vegetables. A footpath leads from the Na-weng across the Yomas into Toung-ngú District. Pop. (1876-77), 2465; gross revenue, £276.

Talája.—Walled town in the Native State of Bhaunagar, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 21′ 15″ N., long. 72° 4′ 30″ E. Taylor, in his *Sailing Directory*, describes Talája as 'a small steep hill of conical form, about 400 feet above the sea, and rising out of a level plain.' On the top of the hill is 'a Hindu temple, with tanks of excellent water; the hill has caves excavated in the solid rock, where formerly the pirates of these parts dwelt, even as recently as the year 1823.'

Talakádu.—Ancient city in Mysore District, Mysore State.—*See* TALKAD.

Tala-Káveri.—Source of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, in the Brahmagiri range of the Western Gháts in the territory of Coorg. Lat. 12° 23′ 10″ N., long. 75° 34′ 10″ E. Here is a temple of great sanctity, annually frequented by thousands of pilgrims. The chief bathing festival is in *Tulá-mása* (October-November), when, according to local legend, the goddess Gangá herself resorts underground to the all-purifying stream. On this occasion, every Coorg family sends a representative; and the total attendance is estimated at 15,000. The temple is endowed by Government with £232 a year.

Talambha.—Town and ruins in Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 31′ N., and long. 72° 17′ E., 2 miles from the modern left bank of the Rávi, and 52 miles north-east of Múltán city. Pop. (1868), 3152. A place of purely antiquarian interest, the present village being built of bricks taken from an old fortress, 1 mile south. The stronghold once possessed great strength, while its antiquity is vouched for by the size of the bricks, described by General Cunningham as 'similar to the oldest in the walls and ruins of Múltán.' Identified with a town of the Malli, conquered by Alexander the Great during his campaign in the Punjab. Said also to have been taken by Mahmúd of Ghazní. Timúr plundered the town, and massacred the inhabitants, but left the citadel untouched, because it would have delayed his progress. Abandoned, according to tradition, in consequence of a change of course by the Rávi, which cut off the water supply about the time of Mahmúd Langa (1510 to 1525 A.D.). General Cunningham describes the ruins as consisting of an open city, protected on the south by a lofty fortress 1000 feet square. The outer rampart of earth has a thickness of 200 feet and a height of 20 feet; and a second rampart of equal elevation stands upon its summit. Both were originally faced with large bricks. The modern village contains a police station and branch post office.

Talaparamba.—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* TALIPARAMBA.

Tál Bahat.—Ancient town in Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated at the base of a hill, in lat. 25° 2′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 28′ 55″ E., 26 miles north of Lálitpur town. Pop. (1872), 4813. Derives its name from a large tank or lake (*tál*) which supplies water for irrigation to several of the neighbouring villages. It is formed by the natural interposition of the hill, a rocky range 800 feet in height, whose proper outlets have been artificially dammed; and it covers an area of at least a mile square. Extensive masonry battlements crown the hill-top, and enclose a fort now in ruins. Beneath, the town spreads out an orderly array of good brick houses, mostly flat-roofed, and apparently indicating a large population. On a nearer view, however, many of the buildings are seen to be ruinous and vacant, the people having deserted their homes in large numbers, especially during the famine year of 1869, and emigrated to neighbouring Native States. Many trees stand in and out amongst the houses, thus increasing the apparent size of the town. Around the whole lake, and especially along its northern border, runs a green fringe of cultivated fields; but the remainder of the surrounding country, seen from the hill, stretches like a vast undulating jungle, interspersed with occasional conical heights. Much rice grows in a swamp fed from the lake. Small trade in grain and cotton. *Bázár;* handsome well; old fort demolished by Sir Hugh Rose in 1857.

Tálcher.—One of the Petty States of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 20° 52′ 30″ and 21° 18′ N. lat., and between 84° 57′ and 85° 17′ 45″ E. long. Area, 399 square miles; number of villages, 242; pop. (1872), 38,021. Bounded on the north by Pal Lahára, on the east by Dhenkánal, and on the south and west by Angul. The chief feature in this State is a coal-field, of which a thorough examination was made in 1875. It was then reported that no seam of workable thickness and fairly good quality exists; that a final and thorough exploration could only be effected at a considerable expense; that the local consumption would never suffice to support a proper mining establishment; and that, with the costly long land carriage, no class of coal equal to Ráníganj could compete successfully at the Orissa ports with coal sent from Calcutta by sea. The project for utilizing the Tálcher coal-beds has therefore been abandoned for the present. Iron and lime are also found near the banks of the Bráhmaní river, which separates Tálcher on the east from Pal Lahára and Dhenkánal. Small quantities of gold are found by washing the sand of the river, but little profit accrues to the workers. The population of 38,021 persons inhabit 7192 houses, and consist of—27,351 Hindus and people of Hindu origin, the most numerous castes being Chásás, Gaurs, Bráhmans,

and Kámárs; 3940 aborigines, mainly Savars, Gonds, and Táalas; 6630 semi-Hinduized aborigines, chiefly Páns; and 100 Muhammadans. Proportion of males in total population, 51·2 per cent.; average density of population, 95 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 0·60; persons per village, 157; houses per square mile, 18; persons per house, 5·3. The only town of any size in the State is Tálcher, the residence of the Rájá, situated on the right bank of the Bráhmaní, in lat. 20° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 85° 16′ 11″ E., and containing about 500 houses. Only one village in the State has a population of from 2000 to 3000 souls. Tálcher is said to have been founded about 500 years ago by a son of an Oudh Rájá, who forcibly ejected the savage tribe which had previously inhabited it. The title of Mahendrá Bahádur was bestowed upon the late chief as a reward for services rendered during the Angul disturbances in 1847. The estimated annual income of the Rájá is £4147; the yearly tribute to the British Government, £103. The Rájá's militia consists of 615, and the police force of 267 men. Fifteen schools are scattered through the State.

Táldandá.—Canal in Cuttack District, Bengal, connecting Cuttack city with the main branch of the Mahánadi river within tidal range. It is intended both for navigation and for irrigation; total length, 52 miles. The lower reaches are not yet finished. The canal, when completed, will end at Shámágol on the Mahánadi, about 8 miles in a direct line from the sea. It starts from the right flank of the Mahánadi weir at Jobrá, skirts the east side of the city of Cuttack for a mile and half, then turns eastward, and runs midway between the Kátjurí and the Mahánadi for 4 miles; thence to Bírbátí, it keeps nearly parallel with the latter river, at a distance of from half a mile to one mile. At Bírbátí, a branch canal is thrown out to MACHHGAON, at the mouth of the Devi. The Táldandá Canal, in its first reach to Bírbátí, has a bottom width of 64 feet, with slopes of 2 to 1, and a fall of 6 inches in the mile. With a maximum depth of 8 feet of water, the discharge is calculated at 1460 cubic feet per second, half of which will be carried off by the Máchhgáon Canal, leaving 730 feet per second to the lower reaches of the parent canal. The Táldandá Canal, with its offshoot, the Máchhgáon, is designed to irrigate 155,000 acres of the central delta. Many of the distributaries are now completed, the total irrigable area at the end of 1874-75 being 35,500 acres. Its first section is spanned by four bridges.

Talegáon.—Town in Amráoti District, Berar. Lat. 21° 5′ N., long. 78° 4′ E.; pop. (1867), 4198. The town, which is now greatly decayed, contains the ruins of many fine buildings. The *tahsili*, formerly here, has been removed to Chándur, a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Talegáon Dábhára.—Municipal town in the Máwal Subdivision of

Poona (Puná) District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 43′ 10″ N., and long. 73° 43′ 30″ E., 20 miles north-west from Poona city. Pop. (1872), 5040. Talegáon is a *dumála* town belonging to the Dábháde family, who rose to great importance during the time of the Peshwá Bálájí Vishwanáth, in the person of Khandá Ráo Dábháde, the Peshwá's commander-in-chief in 1716. Talegáon will lapse to Government on the death of the present holder, a female. Post office and dispensary. Brisk oil manufacture.

Talegáon Dhamdhera.—Municipal town in the Sirúr Subdivision of Poona District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 40′ N., and long. 74° 13′ E., 20 miles north-east of Poona city. Pop. (1872), 6547. Talegáon takes its name from having been a convenient camping-ground (*tál*) in former times. The Dhamdhera family has for long held the foremost place in Talegáon, and has given its name to the town to distinguish it from TALEGAON DABHARA in the Máwal Subdivision of Poona District (*vide supra*). Post office and dispensary.

Tale-kaveri.—River in Coorg.—*See* TALA-KAVERI.

Tálgáon (or '*Tank Town*').—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 12 miles east by north of Sítápur town, and 8 miles south of Láharpur. Derives its name from the numerous *jhíls* or *táls* in the immediate neighbourhood. Founded by Khánzádas in the 11th century. Pop. (1869), 2098, chiefly Muhammadans. The principal landholders are Khánzádas (Shaikhs) and Kirmáni Sayyids. Site good, and well wooded. Annual fair, attended by 10,000 people. Three mosques; Government school. Annual value of *bázár* sales, £2500.

Tálikot. — Town in Muddebihál Subdivision, Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated 60 miles north-east of Kaládgi town, in lat. 16° 28′ 20″ N., and long. 76° 21′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 7459. Celebrated for the battle fought on 25th January 1565, in which the power of the Hindu empire of Vijayanagar was destroyed by a confederacy of the Musalmán kings of the Deccan.

Taliparamba. — Town in Malabar District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 2′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 24′ 16″ E., 15 miles north-east of Cannanore (Kannúr). Sub-magistrate's station. Contains a brass-roofed temple.

Talkad.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 377 square miles, of which 158 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 82,311, of whom 80,142 are Hindus, 2097 Muhammadans, and 72 Jains. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9549, or 2s. per cultivated acre. The *táluk* is extensively irrigated by channels drawn off from the bed of the Káveri (Cauvery) river by anicuts or dams. Headquarters at Narsipur.

Talkad (or *Talkádu*).—Ancient city in Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 11′ N., and long. 77° 5′ E., on the left bank of

the Káveri (Cauvery) river, 28 miles by road south-east of Mysore city. Since 1868, no longer the headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 2882, almost all Hindus. The origin of Talkad is lost in antiquity. The name is translated into Sanskrit as *Dala-vana*. The first authentic fact of history is that Hari Varma, a king of the Kongu or Chera line, fixed his capital here in the year 288 A.D. A king of the same dynasty strongly fortified the city in the 6th century. At the close of the 9th century, the Cheras succumbed to the Cholas; but Talkad reappears a hundred years later as the capital of the Hoysala Ballála line. Subsequently, it passed into the hands of a feudatory of the Vijayanagar king, from whom it was conquered in 1634 by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The last Ráni of Talkad imprecated a curse upon the city 'that it should become sand,' and threw herself into the Káveri. At the present day, the buildings of the old city are completely buried beneath hills of sand, stretching nearly a mile in length. These sandhills advance at the rate of about 10 feet a year, and are said to cover about 30 temples, of which the topmost pagodas of two still project above the surface. The temple of Kirti Naráyana is occasionally opened, with great labour, sufficiently to allow of access for certain ceremonies.

Tallacheri.—Municipal town and seaport in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* TELLICHERRI.

Taloda.—Chief town and municipality of the Taloda Subdivision, Khándesh District, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 34′ N., and long. 74° 18′ 30″ E., 62 miles north-west of Dhulia, and 104 miles west of the Bhusáwal station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pop. (1872), 5145. Taloda is the chief wood market of Khándesh District, and has also a considerable trade in *roya* grass, oil, and grain. The best wooden carts of Khándesh are manufactured here, costing about £4 each. Post office.

Talsana.—One of the petty States of Jhláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £2292; of which £91 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £14 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Tambaur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, and on the east, south, and west by Kundri, Biswán, and Láharpur *parganás*. Area, 190 square miles, or 121,471 acres, of which 84,305 acres are cultivated and 21,146 cultivable. The country is a complete network of streams, being bounded on the north by the Daháwar and on the west by the Gogra; while it is intersected by the Chauka, and many smaller rivers. The soil is throughout *tarái* and *gánjar*, that is to say, it is so moist as not to require irrigation; and during the rainy season there is scarcely a village but is more or less flooded. In heavy or protracted floods, the autumn crops are

destroyed. The Chauka and Dahávar rivers frequently change their course, and both annually cut away land from the villages through which they pass. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, the *parganá* is on the whole prosperous, and contains a large proportion of highly skilled agricultural castes, such as Kurmís or Muráos. Pop. (1869), 63,421 Hindus and 5868 Muhammadans; total, 69,289. Of the 186 villages comprising the *parganá*, 80 are *tálukdárí*, 43 of which are owned by Gaur Kshattriyas. The remaining villages, 86 in number, are *zamíndárí*, of which 40 are also held by Gaurs, who thus own one-half the whole number of villages in the *parganá*. The only manufacture carried on is that of saltpetre. One road crosses the *parganá* from Sítápur to Mallápur.

Tambaur.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 35 miles north-east of Sítápur town, and 6 miles west of Mallápur, between the Dahávar and Chauka rivers. Founded about 700 years ago by Tambulís, whence its name. Pop. (1869), 3014, residing in 520 mud-built houses. Tambaur includes the village of Ahmedábád, and now belongs to a Kurmí community. School; bi-weekly market; remains of a Government fort; temple to Siva; masonry tank, now in decay; and a martyr's tomb.

Támberacheri.—Pass in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* TAMRACHERI.

Támbraparní (*Porunai*, the Σωλήν of the Greeks).—River in Tinnevelli District, Madras, rising in the Western Gháts, in lat. 8° 52′ N., and long. 77° 51′ E. It runs in a south-easterly direction to Shermadevi, then north-west between Tinnevelli and Pálamcottah, then again south and east to the sea; total length, 70 miles. With the Chittár and its other feeders, it irrigates 65,000 acres of land; and the District is largely dependent on this supply of water, the distribution of which is regulated by eight anicuts across the bed of the river. The valley is closely cultivated, and supports a dense population. The river is mentioned in the *Brihat Samhitá* (*circ.* 404 A.D.), and reference to the port (Kolkei) at its mouth is made by Ptolemy and in the *Periplus*. Near its source rises another and smaller stream of the same name, sometimes called the Western Támbraparní, which flows westward into Travancore.

Tamlúk.—Subdivision of Midnapur District, Bengal, lying between 21° 53′ 30″ and 22° 32′ 45″ N. lat., and between 87° 39′ 45″ and 88° 14′ E. long. Area, 621 square miles; number of villages, 1522; houses, 72,438. Pop. (1872), 467,817, of whom 424,075, or 90·7 per cent., were Hindus; 43,317, or 9·3 per cent., Muhammadans; 209 Christians; and 216 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 48·9 per cent.; average density of population, 753 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 2·45; persons per village, 307; houses per square mile, 117; inmates per house, 6·5. This Subdivision comprises the 5 police circles of Tamlúk, Pánchkurá, Mas-

landpur, Sutáhátá, and Nandigáon. In 1870-71, it contained 1 magisterial and revenue court, a regular police force of 150 men, and a village watch of 1599; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £4523.

Tamlúk.—Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, Midnapur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 18′ 2″ N., and long. 87° 58′ 10″ E., on the Rúpnáráyan river. Pop. (1872), 5849, of whom 3003 were males and 2846 females. The population was made up of 5044 Hindus, 800 Muhammadans, 4 Christians, and 1 'other.' Tamlúk is a municipality, with an income (1876-77) of £319; incidence of taxation, 11⅜d. per head.

The town contains also a police station (*thánd*), and is one of the principal seats of commerce in the District. In ancient times, Tamlúk was a famous city, and figures as a kingdom of great antiquity in the sacred writings of the Hindus. It first emerges in authentic history as a Buddhist maritime port, being the place whence the Chinese pilgrim Fa-Hian took ship to Ceylon in the early part of the 5th century. Two hundred and fifty years later, another celebrated pilgrim from China, Hiouen Thsang, speaks of Tamlúk as still an important harbour, with ten Buddhist monasteries, a thousand monks, and a pillar by King Asoka, 200 feet high. Even after the overthrow of Buddhism by Hinduism, many wealthy merchants and shipowners resided here, and carried on an extensive over-sea trade. Indigo, mulberry, and silk, the costly products of Bengal and Orissa, form the traditional articles of export from ancient Tamlúk; and although the sea has since left it, the place long continued an important maritime town. In 635 A.D., the Chinese traveller Hiouen Thsang found the city washed by the ocean; the earliest Hindu tradition places the sea 8 miles off, and it is now fully 60 miles distant. The process of land-making at the mouth of the Húglí has gone on slowly but steadily, and has left Tamlúk an inland village on the banks of the Rúpnáráyan river. The peasants, in digging wells or tanks, come upon sea-shells at a depth of from 10 to 20 feet; and an almost forgotten name of the town, Ratnákar or Ratnábatí, or the 'Mine of Gems,' alone commemorates its former wealth. Under the rule of the ancient Peacock Dynasty of Tamlúk, the royal palace and grounds are said to have covered 8 square miles, fortified by strong walls and deep ditches. No trace of the ancient palace is now discernible, except some ruins to the west of the palace of the present Kaibartta Rájá. The present palace is built on the side of the river, surrounded by ditches, and covers the more moderate area of about 30 acres. The old city lies under the river-silt, even the great temple is now partly underground; and the remains of masonry wells and houses are met with at 18 to 21 feet below the surface.

The principal object of interest at Tamlúk is a temple sacred to the goddess Barga-bhímá or Kálí, situated on the bank of the Rúpnáráyan.

The honour of its construction is ascribed to various persons. Some say that it was built by Viswakarmá, the engineer of the gods. It is generally, however, assigned to the King of the Peacock Dynasty mentioned above, although the present royal family of Tamlúk assert that the founder of their dynasty, the first Kaibartta Rájá, was the builder of the temple. The skill and ingenuity displayed in its construction still attract admiration. The shrine is surrounded by a curious threefold wall. A high foundation, consisting of large logs of wood placed upon the earth in rows, covering the whole area to be occupied by the temple, and afterwards covered over with bricks and stones to a height of 30 feet, was first constructed ; and upon this the wall is built. The three folds form one compact wall, the outer and inner being made of brick, the centre one of stone. The wall rises to a height of 60 feet above the lofty foundations, its width at the top of the foundation being 9 feet. The whole is covered with a dome-shaped roof. Stones of enormous size were used in its construction, and raise the spectator's wonder as to how they were lifted into their places. On the top of the temple, although dedicated to the wife of Siva, is the sacred disc (*chakra*) of Vishnu, surmounted by the form of a peacock. The idol is formed from a single block of stone, with the hands and feet attached to it. The goddess is represented standing on the body of Siva, and has four hands. Outside the temple, but within its enclosure, is a *keli-kadamba* tree, supposed to have the virtue of redeeming wives from barrenness. Numbers of women flock hither to pray for offspring, suspending pieces of brick to the tree by ropes made of their own hair. The branches of the tree are said to be covered with these curious ropes. The dread of the anger of the goddess is great. The Marhattás, when ravaging Lower Bengal, left Tamlúk untouched, and made many valuable offerings to the temple, out of reverence for the goddess. Even the river Rúpnáráyan is said to still its waters as it flows by, while a short distance above and below the shrine the waves are turbulent. The river has on several occasions encroached near the temple, and once reached to within 5 yards of the walls. Although even the priests deserted the edifice from fear that it would be washed away, the stream was only allowed to approach within a certain distance ; as often as it passed the line the waters were forced back by the Divine Will, and the temple escaped without injury. There is also a Vishnuvite temple at Tamlúk, which, in shape and construction, resembles that of Barga-bhímá. The legends connected with both temples will be found related in my *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 64, 66, and 67 ; and in my *Orissa*, vol. i. 310-312.

Tamlúk, or Támralipta, as it is called in Sanskrit, although originally a centre of Buddhism, continued to be a place of great sanctity when that religion was ousted by Bráhmanism. Its very name bears witness

to its ancient unorthodoxy, but even this has been distorted into a title of honour. Grammarians derive the word from *tamas-lipta*—literally, 'stained with darkness or sin.' But a legend relates that it took its name from the fact that Vishnu, in the form of Kalki, having got very hot in destroying the demons, dropped perspiration at this fortunate spot, which accordingly became stained with the holy sweat of the god, and gave a sanctity and name to the place. A Sanskrit text speaks of it as a holy place in the following words:—'I will tell you where your sins will be destroyed. There is a great place of pilgrimage in the south of India, an ablution in which saves a man from his sins.' The earliest kings of Tamlúk belonged to the Peacock Dynasty, and were Rájputs by caste. The last of this line, Nisankhá Náráyan, died childless; and at his death the throne was usurped by a powerful aboriginal chief named Kálu Bhuiyá, the founder of the existing line of Kaibartta or Fisher-kings of Tamlúk. The Kaibarttas are generally considered to be descendants of the aboriginal Bhuiyás, who have embraced Hinduism. The present Rájá is the twenty-fifth in descent from Kálu Bhuiyá.

Támracheri (*Támberacheri*).—Pass in Malabar District, Madras, lying between 11° 29′ 20″ and 11° 30′ 45″ N. lat., and between 76° 4′ 30″ and 76° 5′ 15″ E. long., carrying the road over the Western Gháts from Calicut to the Wainád and Mysore (Maisúr). This route is much used for the export of coffee; it was the one taken by Haidar in his descent on Calicut in 1773, and was made use of by Tipú in his invasions of Malabar.

Támrángá.—Marsh or *bíl* in Goálpára District, Assam; of considerable depth, and covering an area of 7 square miles.

Támrapurni.—River in Madras.—*See* TAMBRAPARNI.

Tánakallu.—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras. Lat. 13° 57′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ E.; pop. (1871), 5690, inhabiting 1115 houses.

Tanda.—Sub-District and town of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind.—*See* TANDO MUHAMMAD KHAN.

Tánda. — *Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh, lying between 26° 9′ and 26° 39′ N. lat., and between 82° 30′ and 83° 9′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the east and south by Azamgarh District, and on the west by Akbarpur *tahsíl*. Area, 497 square miles, of which 273 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 231,160; Muhammadans, 31,737; total, 263,897, namely, males, 135,549, and females, 128,348. Average density of population, 544 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 842. This *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Surharpur, Birhár, and Tánda.

Tánda.—*Parganá* in Tánda Subdivision, Faizábád District, Oudh.

Bounded on the north by the Gogra river, which separates it from Basti District; on the east by Birhar *parganá;* on the south by Akbarpur *parganá;* and on the west by Amsin *parganá.* A well-wooded country, traversed throughout for a distance of 40 miles by a beautiful avenue of fine old mango trees, planted many years ago by a native gentleman, with the object of forming a continuous avenue from Tánda town to Faizábád. Area, after recent transfers, 124 square miles, of which 73 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 54,843; Muhammadans, 9083; total, 63,926. Number of villages or townships, 215. Cotton-weaving is the principal manufacture, but the industry is decaying. In 1862, there were 1125 looms in the *parganá*, principally in Tánda town; but owing to the competition of Manchester piece goods, many weavers have left, and the number of looms is now estimated at only 875. Where English thread is used, each loom is capable of turning out about £21 worth of cloth per annum, of which £6, 4s. represents the weaver's profits; where native thread is used, the out-turn is about £17, and the profits, £5. During the later years of native rule, Tánda annually exported upwards of £12,000 worth of cloth to Nepál; but its exports thither have now decreased more than one-half. Five market villages; periodical fairs are also held on the occasion of Hindu and Muhammadan festivals.

Tánda.—Town in Faizábád District, Oudh, and headquarters of Tánda *tahsíl* and *parganá;* situated in lat. 26° 33′ N., and long. 82° 42′ 10″ E., 3 miles south of the Gogra river, on the road from Faizábád city to Azamgarh. The road from Sultánpur to Gorakhpur also passes through Tánda. The site of the town was granted by the Emperor Farrukh Siyyar to Háiat Khán, the *tálukdár.* Celebrated for its woven cotton goods, such as *jámdáni* cloth, which are said to rival those of Dacca. They are of the value of from £10 to £15 per piece. The total value of the annual export of cloth is about £15,000. Pop. (1869), Muhammadans, 7613; Hindus, 6815; total, 14,428, residing in 3660 houses. The town contains 44 mosques, 34 *imámbáras*, and 9 Hindu temples. Good Government school. Two annual fairs.

Tánda.—Town in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 40′ N., and long. 75° 41′ E. Pop. (1868), 5257 persons, consisting of 1513 Hindus, 3570 Muhammadans, 41 Síkhs, and 133 'others.' Forms with the neighbouring town of Urmur (1 mile north) a municipal union. Revenue in 1875-76, £483, or 8¼d. per head of population (13,970) within municipal limits.

Tándán (or *Tángrá*).—Town in Maldah District, Bengal. The ancient capital of Bengal after the decadence of GAUR. Its history is obscure, and the very site of the city has not been accurately determined. It is certain that it was in the immediate neighbourhood of Gaur, and west of that town, beyond the Bhágirathí. Perhaps Tán-

dán has been utterly swept away by the changes in the course of the Ganges. Neither the Revenue Surveyor nor the modern maps make any mention of the place. According to Stewart (*History of Bengal*, ed. 1847, p. 95), Sulaimán Sháh Karání, the last but one of the Afghán kings of Bengal, moved the seat of Government to Tándán in 1564 A.D., eleven years before the final depopulation of Gaur. Though never a populous city, Tándán was a favourite residence for the Mughal governors of Bengal until the middle of the following century. In 1660, the rebel Sujá Sháh, when hard pressed by Mír Jumlá, Aurangzeb's general, retreated from Rájmahal to Tándán; in the vicinity of which town was fought the decisive battle in which the former was finally routed. After this date, Tándán is not mentioned in history, and it was subsequently deserted by the Mughal governors in favour of Dacca.

Tando Adam.—Town in Haidarábád District, Sind.—*See* ADAM-JO-TANDO.

Tando Alahyar.—*Táluk* and town in Haidarábád District, Sind.—*See* ALAHYAR-JO-TANDO.

Tando Bágo.—Subdivision of Tando Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád District, Sind. Area, 700 square miles; pop. (1872), 47,922. Imperial revenue in 1873-74, £9662; local revenue, £894; total, £10,556.

Tando Bágo.—Principal town and headquarters of Tando Bágo *táluk*, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 47′ N., and long. 69° E., on the left bank of the Shádiwáh Canal, 58 miles south-east of Haidarábád (Hyderábád), with which it has road communication through Tando Muhammad Khán. It is connected also by cross roads with Wango Barar, Khairpur, Pangryo, and Badin; and with Nindo Shahr by the postal road. Pop. (1872), 1452, namely, 484 Musalmáns and 875 Hindus. *Múkhtiárkár's* court, jail, and police lines, with accommodation for 2 officers and 7 constables. A municipality was established in 1857; income in 1873-74, £189. Tando Bágo has a Government vernacular school, a post office, a cattle-pound, and a commodious *dharmsála*, the latter being maintained at the expense of the municipality. Several of the Tálpurs of the Bagáni family reside here, the principal man of note being Mír Wálí Muhammad, a lineal descendant of Bágo Khán Tálpur, who founded the town about 140 years ago. A little trade is done in rice and grain, sugar, cloth, oil, tobacco, country liquor and drugs. The manufactures are insignificant.

Tando Ghulám Alí.—The largest Government town in Tando Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád District, Sind; distant 20 miles east of Tando Muhammad Khán, 36 miles south-east of Haidarábád city, and 14 miles west of Dighri, the headquarters of Dero Mohbat *táluk.* Pop. (1872), 1412. It has road communication with Haidarábád by the postal line, and by cross road with Tando Muhammad Khán, Háji Sáwan, and Rájá Khanáni. The town is situated in the

midst of *jágír* lands, with no public buildings, except police lines for the accommodation of a few constables. There is an Anglo-vernacular school, supported mainly by Mír Muhammad Khán, a Sardár of the first class, who resides here with his family. The trade of the town is mainly in grain, dates, sugar, molasses, spices, salt, cloth, metals, oil, tobacco, indigo, country liquor and drugs. There are no manufactures of any consequence. The town was founded about 1819, by Mír Ghulám Alí Manikáni, the father of the present Mír.

Tando Lukmán.—Town in Khairpur State; situated a short distance north of the town of Khairpur on the road to Rohri. Pop. (1872), about 1580. The place is noted not only for its manufacture of ardent spirits, but for carved and coloured woodwork, such as cradles, bedposts, small boxes, and other articles. It is said to have been founded about 1785, by Lukmán Khán Tálpur.

Tando Masti Khán.—Town in Khairpur State; situated about 13 miles south of Khairpur town, and 18 miles from Ránípur. The main road from Haidarábád (Hyderábád) to Rohri runs through the town. Pop. (1872), 4860, of whom by far the greater number are Muhammadans. The town was founded about 1803 by Wadero Masti Khán. Near it, in a southerly direction, are the ruins of Kotesar, supposed to have been once a very populous place. On the western side are the shrines of Sháh Jaro Pír Fazl Nango and Shaikh Makái.

Tando Muhammad Khán (or *Tanda*).—Sub-District of Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, lying between 24° 14′ and 25° 17′ N. lat., and between 68° 19′ and 69° 22′ E. long. Area, 3177 square miles; population (1872), 189,931.

Physical Aspects.—The general appearance of this Sub-District is that of a level plain, the monotony of which is but slightly relieved by belts of trees fringing the canal banks. To the east and south are large salt tracts, and on the west, skirting the Indus, *bábul* forests of considerable extent. There are about 100 canals, Government and *zamíndárí*. Of these, the Gúni is the largest, being 69 miles in length. None of the channels is perennial. They fill as the Indus rises, early in May, and dry up by October. The chief *dandhs* or marshes are the Barejí, the Sarabudi, and the Jhalar. Limestone and saltpetre occur in this Sub-District. Venomous snakes abound. Hyænas, wolves, foxes, deer, jackals, and hogs are the principal wild animals met with.

Population.—Of the total population, returned in 1872 at 189,931 persons, 21,982 are Hindus and 167,949 Muhammadans. Of the former, the Waishia caste is the most numerous; of the latter, Sindis and Baluchís.

Crops.—The staple crops are *joár*, *bájra*, rice, tobacco, cotton, sugarcane, and hemp, which are sown between March and July, and reaped between February and November; also wheat, barley, vegetables, and

other garden produce, which are sown on land previously saturated either by canal or rain water. Irrigation is effected by means of the Persian wheel. The highest rate of rent for rice land does not exceed 5 rupees, or 10s. per acre. *Baráni* or rain land cultivation is assessed at a uniform rate of 8 annas, or 1s. per *bighá*, except in the Gúni *táluk*, where the rate is 12 annas, or 1s. 6d. The total area of land held in *jágír*, or revenue free, amounts to 296,000 acres, and the number of *jágirdárs* is between 200 and 300.

Trade and Manufactures.—The main exports are agricultural produce, camel cloth, *ghí*, cotton, and salt. Their approximate annual value is £1000. The imports comprise grain, drugs, metals, oil, silk, skins, sugar, tobacco, etc., and their annual value is roughly estimated at £3000. The value of the transit trade of the Sub-District is approximately stated at £1,000,000 sterling. The manufactures are striped cloths, blankets, camel saddles, gold and silver ornaments, wooden articles, carpets, silk thread, metal goods, sugar, salt, and saltpetre. Five fairs are held in the Sub-District. The aggregate length of roads is 555 miles, of which 131 miles are trunk and postal lines. The number of ferries is 28, and of these 17 are on the Gúni Canal.

Administration.—The total imperial revenue of Tando Muhammad Khán in 1873-74 was £34,128, and the local revenue, £3504. The land tax furnishes the principal item. The Sub-District is administered by a Deputy Collector and Assistants. There is a subordinate civil court at the town of Tando Muhammad Khán. The police number 157 officers and men. There are 5 municipalities, viz. Tando Muhammad Khán, Tando Bágo, Badin, Nindo Shahr, and Rájo Khánáni. Their aggregate receipts in 1873-74 amounted to £945. Hospital and dispensary at Tando Muhammad Khán. There is a jail at the headquarters of every *múkhtiárkár* or subordinate magistrate. The number of schools in 1874 was 8, attended by 263 pupils. The average annual rainfall of the Sub-District is stated not to exceed 4 inches. The prevailing disease is fever.

Tando Muhammad Khán.—Chief town and headquarters of the Sub-District of the same name in Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind; situated in lat. 25° 7′ 30″ N., and long. 67° 33′ 30″ E., on the right bank of the Gúni Canal, 21 miles south of Haidarábád city. Pop. (1872), 3412, including 1703 Muhammadans and 1597 Hindus. As the seat of a Deputy Collector, this town contains a court-house and the usual public buildings. Municipal revenue (1874), £348. Local trade in rice and other grain, silk, metals, tobacco, dyes, saddle-cloths, matting, cochineal, country liquor and drugs. Transit trade in rice, *joár*, *bájra*, and tobacco. The manufactures comprise copper and iron ware, earthenware, silk thread, blankets, cotton cloth, shoes, country liquor, and articles of wood. Tando Muhammad Khán is said to have been

founded by Mír Muhammad Khán Tálpur Sháhwáni, who died in 1813.

Ta-neng-tha-ri (the native form of *Tenasserim*).—Revenue circle in the Tenasserim township of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2378; gross revenue, £530.

Tangacheri.—Town in the Cochin *táluk* of Malabar District, Madras; situated in lat. 8° 54′ N., and long. 76° 38′ 15″ E. Formerly a Dutch settlement. Pharoah (1855) says:—'It was originally a fort, built on a headland of laterite, jutting into the sea. The length is about 2½ furlongs east and west, and the mean breadth, 1 furlong. Portions of the old walls are still visible, as are also the ruins of an old Portuguese tower and belfry. . . . The inhabitants are mostly Roman Catholics. In judicial matters, the people are subject to the auxiliary court at Cochin; the department of police has its separate superintendent, appointed by the British Government. The customs, port dues, and other revenues, derived from this settlement, are levied by the State of Travancore, an equivalent in money being paid by it for the same.'

Tángan.—River of Northern Bengal. Enters Dinájpur District from Jalpáigurí, on its extreme northern boundary; and after a southerly course of about 80 miles, passes into Maldah District, where it empties itself into the Mahánandá near Muchiá, a small mart for rice and grain. Its total length is about 120 miles. During the rains, the Tángan is navigable throughout its entire course in Dinájpur; for the remainder of the year, it is open to boats of from 7 to 10 tons burden for about 50 miles. Its chief tributaries are the Lok and the Tulái; the banks are for the most part jungly. The Tángan brings down a large quantity of silt, and has of late years suffered considerable changes in its course. In 1807, according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, this river effected its junction with the Mahánandá about 7 miles lower down than at present. Its old bed is still traceable in a southerly direction by Kenduá. It is stated that the Tángan has also apparently altered its course in the neighbourhood of Rániganj village, where the remains of a stone bridge, which evidently spanned the former channel of the river, are still to be seen on the high embanked road connecting Rániganj with Gaur. The channel of the Tángan is in many places becoming choked by the sand and mud brought down from the hills.

Tangancherri.—Town in Malabar District, Madras.—*See* TANGACHERI.

Tanglu.—One of the principal peaks in the Singálilá range, Dárjíling District, Bengal. Lat. 27° 1′ N., long. 88° 7′ 15″ E. Height, 10,084 feet; on the summit is some extent of undulating land. The Chhotá or Little Ranjít river takes its rise under this mountain.

Tángrá.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* TANDAN.

Tangutúr.—Town in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 20′ 30″ N., long. 80° 6′ 15″ E.; pop. (1871), 7045, inhabiting 1215 houses.

Tanjore (*Tanjávúr*).—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 9° 49′ and 11° 25′ N. lat., and between 78° 56′ and 79° 54′ E. long. Area, 3654 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 1,973,731. Tanjore forms a portion of the Southern Karnatic. It is bounded on the north by the river Coleroon, which separates it from Trichinopoli and South Arcot Districts; on the east and south-east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south-west by Madura District; and on the west by Madura and Trichinopoli Districts and by the State of Pudukota. The administrative headquarters are at TANJORE CITY, situated on the south bank of the Káveri (Cauvery).

Physical Aspects.—Tanjore has a just claim to be considered the garden of Southern India. The vast delta of the Káveri occupies the flat northern part of the District, which is highly cultivated with rice, dotted over with groves of cocoa-nut trees, and densely populated. This tract is thoroughly irrigated by an intricate network of channels connecting the different branches of the delta. The irrigation works will be described in a later section of this article.

Mr. Hickey (*The Tanjore Principality*, 1874) gives the following description of the physical characteristics of the remainder of the District:—'South-west of the town of Tanjore, the country is somewhat more elevated, especially about Vallam, where the Collector generally resides; but there is nothing that can be called a hill in the whole District. Along the coast, a belt of sand-drifts and low jungle protect the lands from the sea; but between Point Calimere and Adrampatam, a salt swamp extends over several square miles. No rock is prevalent in Tanjore except laterite, which is abundant in the high ground near the western frontier, and is again met with in the extreme south. Around Vallam are many beautiful specimens of rock-crystal. Along the southern coast a narrow and thin bed of sandstone, containing shells, was lately found running parallel with and about half a mile from the shore, and about 2 yards below the surface. This stone is compact enough to be used for building purposes. Extensive beds of marine shells, consisting of the large pearl oyster and other existing specimens, have been found in many excavations south of Negapatam, at the distance of 3 or 4 miles inland, and covered with several feet of alluvial soil; and in the south coast also are numerous specimens of this kind, of comparatively recent appearance. The delta contains some tracts of rich silt, and the immediate margin of the river is generally covered with a light loam; but for the most part the soil is naturally poor, and it is irrigation alone which makes the District such a scene of fertility. The varieties of soil in the higher ground beyond the delta are red loam, black cotton-soil, sandy light earth, and yellow clay much impregnated with soda, and miserably sterile.' The coast line of the District extends for a distance of 170 miles; a heavy

surf breaks incessantly on the shore, rendering communication with shipping very difficult and dangerous.

History.—The modern history of Tanjore commences with its occupation by the Marhattás in 1678 under Venkají, the brother of Siváji the Great, and the founder of the line of Tanjore Rájás. The British first came into contact with Tanjore by their expedition in 1749, with a view to the restoration of a deposed Rájá. The cession of Devikota was promised as the reward of their aid. They failed in this attempt, and a subsequent expedition was bought off. Subsequently, the famous Muhammad Alí, Nawáb of Arcot, was aided by the Madras Government in enforcing a claim for tribute against the Tanjore dynasty, and the fort fell into the hands of the invaders on the 16th September 1773. In 1775, it was restored to the Tanjore Prince, Tulzují. Practically, until 1779 the Marhattás held the Tanjore State, first as tributaries of the Mughal Empire, then of the Nawáb of the Karnatic Payanghát, then as independent sovereigns, and lastly, under the English East India Company, as assignees of the Nawáb's tribute. During the latter end of the last century, Tanjore was in fact a protected State of the British Empire, paying its share of the subsidy for the army, which the latter maintained for the defence of the country. It was ceded to the Company in absolute sovereignty by Rájá Sharabhojí, under treaty dated 25th October 1799.

The territory thus acquired, with the undermentioned three small settlements on the coast, not included therein, constitutes the present District or Collectorate of Tanjore. (1) DEVIKOTA, a small territory adjoining the fort of that name, then estimated to yield a revenue of £3150. This had been previously acquired by the Company from Rájá Pratáp Sinh by treaty in 1749. (2) The Dutch settlement at NEGAPATAM, with the adjoining seaport of Nagore (Nágúr) and the territory known as the Nagore dependency. Negapatam was one of the early settlements of the Portuguese, from whom it was taken by the Dutch in 1660. The Nagore dependency was purchased by the latter, in 1773, from Rájá Tulzují; but was immediately afterwards taken possession of by the Nawáb of the Karnatic Payanghát, with the aid of the English, the Nawáb reimbursing the Dutch the money they had paid for its purchase. It was, however, restored to the Rájá in 1776, together with the whole of his territory, which had been conquered by the Nawáb in 1773; and the Rájá in 1778 granted it to the English. Negapatam was wrested by the English from the Dutch in 1781; and thus, like Devikota, this settlement was already in their possession at the time of the cession of the Tanjore principality. (3) TRANQUEBAR settlement, yielding a revenue of £2100, which the Danes acquired from the Náyak Rájá of Tanjore in 1620, and which they continued to hold, subject to the payment of an annual *peshkash* or tribute of £311,

until 1845; when it was purchased from them by the English East India Company.

Under the treaty of 1799, the East India Company engaged to make over to the Rájá of Tanjore one-fifth of the net revenue of the territory which was transferred to them, with a further sum of 1 *lákh* (one hundred thousand) of Star pagodas, or £35,000. They also permitted him to retain possession of the fort of Tanjore, with a small territory within a radius of half a mile around it, together with certain villages and lands, in different parts of the District. Rájá Sharabhojí died in 1832, and was succeeded by his son Sivají, who died in 1855, without legitimate male issue. Upon this, the Ráj was declared extinct, and the rights and privileges appertaining to it ceased. Liberal provision having been made for the support of all relatives and dependants, the private property of the Rájá was left in the possession of the family. Until 1841, there was a Political Resident at Tanjore; but this office was amalgamated in that year with that of the Collector-Magistrate of the District. The headquarters of this last-mentioned officer, however, remained at Negapatam, the seat of the old Dutch settlement, till 1845; when, upon Tranquebar coming into the possession of the East India Company by purchase, they were removed to that place. After the death of the last Rájá, when the fort and town of Tanjore became British territory, the headquarters of the Collector, as also the seat of the chief court of civil and criminal judicature, then called the Civil and Sessions Court, were removed to Tanjore.

Population.—The first Census of the District was taken in 1822. Since then, six others have been taken, all based on actual enumeration. According to the last Census, that of 1871, the total population of the District was 1,973,731, of whom 953,968 are males and 1,019,763 females; proportion of males in total population, 48·3 per cent. There are 369,984 houses, each containing on an average 5·5 inmates. The average density of the population per square mile is 540·1. In the richly cultivated portions of the delta, the density is, of course, much higher, being as much as 1009 per square mile in the Combaconum (Kumbakonam) *táluk*. Of the total population in 1871, 706,955 (or 35·8 per cent.) were under the age of 12. The great majority of the inhabitants—1,803,787, or 91·4 per cent. of the total population—are Hindus. The Muhammadans number 102,703, or only 5·2 per cent.; whilst 66,409 (or 3·3 per cent.) are Christians, and 239 (or 0·01 per cent.) are Jains. Of the Hindus, the most important castes are Bráhmans (126,757), Vallálars or agriculturists (348,400), and Vanniars or labourers (574,789). There are no traces of distinct aboriginal races; but there are no less than 306,569 Pariahs. Sátánis and Pandárams number 49,763. The ethnology of Tanjore differs from that of most other Districts on the east coast of the

peninsula only in the larger proportion of Bráhmans in the upper grades of the population. The bulk of the population, as elsewhere in the south, consists of Dravidian Hindus. All traces of the immigration of Aryans from Northern India have been lost in the depths of antiquity. Whether the pure Aryan element is preserved unalloyed in any of the numerous classes now included under the general head 'Hindus' or not, is quite an open question; though there can be no doubt that most of the classes which claim Aryan descent contain a large admixture of Dravidian blood. The Muhammadan population consists chiefly of Labbays or Sonakars, a mixed race sprung from the early colonists from Arabia, to whom the coast-line of Tanjore, as commanding a never-failing trade with Ceylon, held out special attractions. These colonists have in course of time found their way also into the interior, and have everywhere adopted the language of the country. The proportion of persons classed as Arabs, Patháns, and Mughals in the last Census returns is hardly one-fifth of the aggregate Muhammadan population of the District; and even these figures are probably excessive. The Eurasian inhabitants of the District are chiefly of Portuguese and Dutch extraction. There is a constant flow of labourers from this District to Ceylon; and to some extent also to Burma, the Straits Settlements, the French West Indies, and Réunion. The emigrants are almost invariably Pariahs and other low-castes. They generally return home with considerable savings out of the wages they earn in the colonies. During the year 1876-77, the number of such emigrants to the Straits Settlements, Guadaloupe, and Cayenne was 3896; to the Mauritius and Bourbon, 426.

Tanjore District was the scene of the earliest labours of Protestant missionaries in India. In 1706, the German missionaries Ziegenbalg and Plütschau established a Lutheran mission in the Danish Settlement of Tranquebar, under the patronage of King Frederic IV. of Denmark; and in 1841, their establishments were taken over by the Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, which subsequently extended its operations into the District. The mission at Tanjore was founded in 1778 by the Rev. C. F. Schwartz of the Tranquebar Mission, who some time previously had transferred his services to the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. The mission establishments at Tanjore were taken over in 1826 by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, which subsequently founded mission establishments in several parts of the District. The total number of native Protestants belonging to the various societies (Church of England, Lutheran, and Wesleyan) in the District in 1871, was 10,378; which is larger than in any other District in the Presidency, except Tinnevelli. Roman Catholic Missions in Tanjore date from the first half of the 17th century. Their churches and chapels are scattered over the whole District; but their

principal seats are Negapatam, Velanganni (on the coast, 6 miles south of Negapatam), Tanjore, Vallam, and Combaconum. At Negapatam, the French Jesuits have a college (St. Joseph's) which was founded in 1846. The present total number of native Roman Catholics in the District is 54,884.

Seventeen towns in Tanjore contain 5000 inhabitants and upwards. Of these, the five following are municipalities:—TANJORE CITY (1871), 52,175; COMBACONUM (Kumbakonam), 46,295; MAYAVARAM, 23,233; NEGAPATAM, 48,667; MANNARGUDI, 17,735. Of all the Madras Districts, Tanjore is the most thickly populated, and contains the smallest proportion of uncultivated land. Before rice was imported from Bengal and Burma, Tanjore was the only source on which Ceylon depended for its supplies of food; and even now the balance of trade is greatly in its favour. There are more than 3000 Hindu temples in the District. Many of the larger ones are splendid structures, and possess extensive endowments in land; the great temple at Tanjore city, declared by Fergusson to be the finest in India, is fully described in the following article. During the annual temple festivals, large fairs are held in different parts of the District. The principal Hindu festivals are held at Combaconum; and here, too, is celebrated the famous *Mahámagham*, a festival occurring once in twelve years, to which crowds flock from all parts of the country. The Muhammadan festival called *Kandiri*, held annually at Nagore, and a Roman Catholic festival (Nativity of the Virgin), celebrated every year in September at Velanganni near Negapatam, are also worthy of notice.

Agriculture.—Rice is the staple crop of the District, and is raised almost entirely by artificial irrigation. It is grown chiefly in the delta of the Káveri; and to a much smaller extent in the upland portion of the District, under tanks fed by the local rainfall. The rice grown in Tanjore consists chiefly of two species, viz. *kár* and *pishánam*, each including minor varieties. A few coarser sorts are sown broadcast; but this mode of cultivation is very limited, being carried on only in a few places beyond the delta, and there on rain-fed land. In all cases of irrigated cultivation, young plants are raised in seed-beds and transplanted. The *kár* is planted in June, and reaped in October. The *pishanam* is planted in July and August, and reaped in January and February. Dry crops are cultivated to a small extent in this District. They are chiefly (1) *varagu* (Panicum miliaceum), (2) *kelvaragu* or *rágí* (Eleusine coracana), (3) *kambu* (Pencillaria spicata), and (4) *keviru* or *dál* (Cajanus indicus). *Varagu* and *dál* are grown chiefly at the western end of the upland portion of the District. These crops are sown in July, and cut in February. *Rágí* and *kambu* are cultivated in small patches both in and beyond the delta. In the delta, these crops are raised either on high lands which are not irrigable, or as an

auxiliary crop on rice-fields. In the latter case, they are sown either before or after rice. They are three months in the ground, being generally sown in June, and cut in September.

Green crops are common in Tanjore, and are grown chiefly in backyards of houses and on river margins. The green crops generally raised are onions, radishes, sweet-potatoes, and the various kinds of greens, of which those most prized are coriander and fenugreek. The only fibres cultivated in the District are two kinds of so-called Indian hemp (Crotalaria juncea and Hibiscus cannabinus), which are grown to a very limited extent on high lands. A very small quantity of cotton is also grown. Plantain and betel-vine gardens abound in the delta, where sugar-cane and tobacco are also cultivated. Tobacco is generally restricted to backyards of houses and margins of rivers. The only part where it is grown to any considerable extent is the sandy tract at the south-eastern end of the District near Point Calimere, where it is a remunerative crop and a principal article of trade. The tobacco consists of broad thick leaves, and is prized for its strength and pungency. It is used only for chewing, and is chiefly exported to the Straits Settlements and Travancore. Cocoa-nut palms and mango trees are abundant all over the District, except in the south-west, where, owing to the dryness and the laterite soil, few trees flourish.

Of the total area of Tanjore District—in the local records put at 2,393,034 acres—about 53 per cent., or 1,264,965 acres, are actually under the plough: 21 per cent., or 497,025 acres, are cultivable, but not cultivated (including land left fallow); and 26 per cent., or 631,044 acres, are uncultivable, or reserved for purposes other than agricultural. Of the cultivated area, 1,193,404 acres, or more than 90 per cent., are under food grains; and of these, 888,315 acres are irrigated rice lands. In the four deltaic *táluks* of Combaconum, Máyavaram, Shiyáli, and Nannilam, there is a considerably larger proportion, both of land actually cultivated and of land devoted to food grains. The prevailing system of revenue administration in Tanjore is *rayatwári.* The general average of the Government assessment for the District is—for irrigated lands, 9s. 9d. per acre; for unirrigated lands, 2s. 6d. per acre. The average net profit per acre of the *rayatwári* holder is estimated at 19s. 3d. for irrigated lands, and 4s. 11d. for unirrigated lands. Wages of agricultural labour are invariably paid in grain. The ordinary rates are ¾ of a *marakhál*, or 3·87 lbs., of paddy (giving about 2½ lbs. of clean rice) per diem for a trained labourer, male or female, and ½ *marakhál* for inferior adult labourers; boys and girls receive half these rates. In towns, wages are paid in money; the ordinary daily rate for an adult male being 4½d., for an adult female 2¼d., and for children 1½d. each. Skilled labourers, such as bricklayers, stone-masons, carpenters, and smiths, are paid, according to the nature of the work and the

degree of skill required, from 7½d. to 1s. a day. The money wages in all cases above mentioned are now generally twice as high as they were twenty-five years ago, and in some cases the increase is still greater. Prices of all articles of food have risen during this period in about the same ratio. The village sales of paddy, the staple produce of the District, on which the original commutation rate for the assessment of irrigated land was calculated, show that the average price of the Tanjore *kalam*, equal to 12 *marakháls* or 62 lbs., has varied from 10½d. in 1850-51 to 2s. 10½d. in 1875-76. Landless labourers constitute about one-half of the adult male population of the District, and of these nearly two-thirds are engaged in agriculture. They are chiefly Pallars and Pariahs, who are permanently attached to farms. The remainder are low-caste Súdras, who have immigrated from time to time from the Maravar country, lying between the Káveri (Cauvery) delta and Cape Comorin. They go by the general name of Terkattiyáns or 'southerners.'

In the delta, the alluvium deposited by the river freshes, as a rule, constitutes the only manure. In the upland portion of the District, as also in those lands in the delta which are irrigated from the tail-ends of channels, and therefore lack this element of fertility, manure is required and used. The mode of manuring generally adopted is by folding sheep or cattle; the latter being more generally employed. Vegetable mould, cow-dung, ashes and other refuse of cook-rooms, and night-soil, are also used. On the whole, the average cost incurred for manuring may be put down as from 2s. to 3s. an acre.

Irrigation. — The great natural advantages of irrigation which Tanjore possesses had been more or less improved upon many centuries before the District became British territory. The Coleroon, which forms the northern boundary of Tanjore, is, from its low level, utilized but to a small extent. The main branch of the Káveri (Cauvery) enters Tanjore District about 8 miles east of Trichinopoli, and spreading out into innumerable small channels, which form a vast network extending down to the sea, converts the northern portion of the District, commonly known as the Káveri delta, into one huge rice-field. Near the western limit of Tanjore, the two main streams come into close contact with each other; and at this point, where the bed of the Coleroon is 9 or 10 feet lower, stands (across a natural outlet of the Káveri channel) the ancient native work, a masonry dam, known as 'The Grand Anicut,' which prevents the waters of the Káveri branch being wholly drawn off into the Coleroon. This work, which has been justly called the 'bulwark of the fertility of Tanjore,' is traditionally believed to have been constructed by a king of the Chola dynasty in the 3rd century A.D. There are grounds for conjecturing that it dates not later than the 12th century. It originally

consisted of a solid mass of rough stone, 1080 feet in length, 40 to 60 in breadth, and 15 to 18 in depth, stretching across the whole width of the outlet in a serpentine form; and in the year 1830, it was provided by Capt. Caldwell of the Engineers with under-sluices, to allow of the escape of sand. In the early part of this century, however, it was discovered that the Coleroon branch, from its more rapid fall and more direct course to the sea, was drawing off an unduly large share of water; while the Káveri branch was deteriorating by the formation of deposits at its head. This defect was removed by the construction across the Coleroon branch, in 1836, of a masonry dam known as the 'Upper Anicut,' which has associated the name of Sir Arthur Cotton, of the Madras Engineers, with the agricultural prosperity of Tanjore. This work was followed by the construction of a regulating dam across the Káveri branch in 1845, to counteract the effects of the Coleroon anicut, which, it was found, was throwing into the Káveri branch a body of water far larger than could be allowed to enter it with safety to Tanjore. The Coleroon dam, 750 yards long, is divided by two small islands in its bed into three parts, of which the one at the northern end is 7 feet 4 inches, and the other two parts 5 feet 4 inches high. Its thickness throughout is 6 feet, and it is provided with sluices for the escape of sand. The Káveri regulating dam, 650 yards in length, is divided into three portions, of which the central has its crown on a level with the river bed; while the one on either side is raised from 12 to 18 inches above it. By these two works, the body of water which enters Tanjore District has been brought under complete control. Almost simultaneously with the Coleroon dam, was carried out, as supplementary to it, another work on the Coleroon, about 70 miles lower down, known as the Lower Anicut. The obstruction of a large portion of the water which the Coleroon was drawing off would, as a necessary consequence, have lowered its surface level, thereby depriving of their irrigation the lands which depended on it in the District of South Arcot; the primary object, therefore, of the Lower Anicut was to ensure irrigation to these lands. But advantage was taken at the same time to provide a supply of water from the Coleroon for the north-eastern portion of Tanjore, which was either beyond the influence, or was indifferently supplied by the tail-ends, of the Káveri channels. Accordingly, the spot where an island divides the Coleroon into two branches was selected. A dam, with suitable vents for the passage of boats as well as the escape of sand, was constructed across each branch; and a channel was taken off from each, one for South Arcot, under the designation of North Rajan *váyakhál*, and the other for Tanjore, called South Rajan *váyakhál*. While, however, the main source has been thus regulated and brought under control, the plan of internal distribution, in connection with this vast

deltaic system of irrigation, has not yet been perfected. During the period of more than thirty years which has elapsed since the system of head-works was completed, considerable improvements have doubtless been effected in the way of providing regulating dams at the bifurcation of the several main branches of the Káveri, as well as head-sluices for minor channels, and *calingulahs* or waste weirs for surplus vents; but much remains to be done towards a complete utilization of the available supply of water, as well as the perfection of drainage arrangements in their detail. The aggregate area irrigated in Tanjore District from all sources is about 900,000 acres, of which about 800,000 acres are irrigated from river channels, and about 100,000 acres from tanks. Cultivation under tanks, which are almost wholly rain-fed, is restricted to the upland portion of the District; there being neither space to spare for reservoirs, nor ordinarily any need for them in the delta, where the river channels keep flowing during the whole of the cultivating season. The total land revenue of the District, including miscellaneous items and *jodi* or quit-rent on *ináms* (lands held on revenue-free tenure) for the year 1875-76, was £443,350, of which £396,325 was obtained more or less directly from irrigation. These figures include every item, and also the deductions for the remuneration of village establishments.

Tanjore is more than ordinarily favoured by nature with regard to immunity from the calamities alike of flood and drought. The high ridges of sand which skirt its coast-line form an effective protection against ordinary storm waves; while the level of the country, which slopes towards the east, ensures the free drainage of the surplus water of the Káveri as well as of local rainfall, which is rarely very heavy.

Commerce and Trade.—With the means of communication, this District is amply provided. It is traversed by two branches of the South Indian Railway; the one from Trichinopoli crossing the District to Negapatam on the coast, and the other (Madras branch) branching off from this line at Tanjore city and running in a north-easterly direction. The former carried during the year 1875, 1,477,120 passengers and 129,537 tons of goods; and realized £82,592. Including the cross lines of internal communication, but excluding the innumerable village tracks, the District contains 70 roads aggregating nearly 1200 miles in length, most of which are provided with substantial masonry bridges over the rivers by which they are intersected, as well as culverts for smaller channels. There is but one navigation canal in use, running 32 miles along the coast from Negapatam to Vedaranyam in the south. It is used almost exclusively for the carriage of salt, which is produced in abundance at Vedaranyam. The manufactures for which Tanjore District is celebrated, are metal wares, silk cloths, carpets,

and pith-work. The chief articles of import are cotton piece-goods, twist and yarn, and metals from Europe, and timber and betel-nuts from the Straits Settlements and Ceylon. Rice is by far the most important article of export, alike by sea and land. By sea, it is exported almost wholly to Ceylon; inland, to Trichinopoli, Madura, and Salem. The total value of the imports by sea in 1876-77 was £549,130, in which piece-goods accounted for £75,674, railway stores for £100,089, and betel-nuts for £84,232. During the same year, the exports by sea amounted in value to £724,905, the grain and pulse alone being valued at £514,259. The rate of interest generally charged in small transactions, where jewels or other valuable articles are given in pawn as security, is from 6 to 12 per cent. per annum; in all other cases, it varies from 12 to 24 per cent. In large transactions, money is rarely lent otherwise than upon the security of landed or house property, and the rate of interest varies from 6 to 12 per cent.; the maximum being demanded, however, only in rare cases.

Administration.—Tanjore District, as constituted at its last rearrangement in 1860, is administered by a Magistrate-Collector, a Sub-Collector, 2 Assistant Collectors, and 2 uncovenanted Deputy Collectors, with the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary establishments. The District is divided into 9 *táluks*, over each of which is a *tahsíldár*, assisted by one or more Deputies; and these 9 *táluks* are formed into 5 divisions, each under the charge of the Sub-Collector or one of the Assistant or Deputy Collectors—the Collector himself having no direct executive charge, but exercising a general supervision. For judicial purposes, the District is divided into North and South Tanjore. The judicial establishment of North Tanjore for civil causes consists of 6 *munsífs* and 1 Sub-Judge, all subject to the controlling authority of the North Tanjore District Judge, who is also Sessions Judge on the criminal side, hearing all criminal cases not triable by the Magistracy (with or without a jury, according to the nature of the case), and all appeals from the highest class of Magistrates. Similarly, in South Tanjore, there are 7 *munsífs* and 2 Sub-Judges, subject to the South Tanjore District Judge. The total District revenue in 1875-76 was £730,645, equal to an average of 7s. 4d. per head on a population of 1,973,731. In 1875, the regular police force amounted to 1355 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £19,653. These figures show 1 policeman to every 2·7 square miles of area and every 1470 inhabitants; the cost of maintenance was at the rate of £5, 7s. per square mile, or 2¼d. per head of population. There are two jails in the District, one at Tanjore city, the other at Tranquebar. The former had in 1875 a daily average of 170 prisoners; 613 prisoners were admitted during the year, of whom 42 were females; the average cost per head was £7, 4s. 11½d.; and the average earnings of each inmate

employed on manufactures was £1, 8s. In the Tranquebar jail, there was in the same year a daily average of 138 prisoners; 542 prisoners were admitted during the year, of whom 60 were females; the average cost per head was £9, 5s. 5½d., and the average earnings of each inmate employed on manufactures was 16s. There are about 700 *chattrams* or native charity-houses in the District; in some of these, food is distributed gratuitously to all travellers. The educational machinery consists of 3 colleges and 605 schools of various grades. The three colleges are the Government Provincial College at Combaconum, the S. P. G. Collegiate School at Tanjore city, and St. Joseph's Jesuit College at Negapatam; 6 of the schools are of the higher class, and affiliated to colleges; 61 (including 3 girls' schools) are middle and lower class Government schools, 66 (including 14 girls' schools) belong to missionary societies, and 472 are private village and town schools.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall, as elsewhere on the Coromandel coast, varies considerably from year to year. The south-west monsoon sets in in June, and continues more or less till September; but the rain falls at only long intervals, and but rarely for two hours continuously. The total fall during this monsoon averages 15 inches. The north-east monsoon sets in in October or November, and continues more or less till January. The rains during this part of the year are more continuous and, on the whole, more copious, averaging 23 inches. These averages are taken for the last ten years. The mean annual rainfall observed at 10 stations in the District for four years was 47·14 inches, with an average of sixty-four rainy days in the year. The District enjoys some rain in nearly every month. But it is heaviest from August to December inclusive, and lightest in March. In the last three months of the year, the average fall is about 25 inches. The hottest season of the year is from March to May. After this period, the freshes in the rivers, and the occasional showers of the south-west monsoon, tend to keep the atmosphere to some extent cool. The mean annual temperature for 1875 was 81·9° F., varying from a maximum of 103·9° in May to a minimum of 64·2° in January. Storms and cyclones are of frequent occurrence on the coast; but Palk's Bay, which bounds the District on the south, affords protection to the shipping during bad weather. None of the diseases prevalent in this District can be regarded as endemic. Formerly, elephantiasis was commonly met with in the city of Tanjore, whence it latterly extended to Combaconum. It existed also at Negapatam on the coast, but with improved sanitation it has now to a considerable extent disappeared. The diseases most common are fevers, small-pox, and cholera, all more or less epidemic. Cholera was particularly fatal in 1854 and 1875; it commences generally about the close of the north-east mon-

soon in January, and continues throughout the following hot season. There are 15 dispensaries in the District. Of these, five situated in the five municipalities, one at Tranquebar, and three connected with *chattrams*, afford relief to both in-door and out-door patients; the remaining six are for out-patients only.

Tanjore (*Tanjávúr*).—City in Tanjore District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 47′ 0″ N., and long. 79° 10′ 24″ E.; pop. (1871), 52,175, inhabiting 11,551 houses. Tanjore was the last capital of the ancient Hindu dynasty of the Cholas, and was subsequently ruled by a Náyak governor from Vijayanagar. Between 1656 and 1675, it fell into the hands of the Marhattás; under whose rule it became the capital of a compact and prosperous State. In 1758, it was attacked by the French under Lally, who extorted large sums from the reigning Marhattá Rájá. Colonel Joseph Smith captured the fort in 1773; and again, in 1776, it was occupied by an English garrison. Rájá Sharabhojí, by a treaty in 1779, ceded the dependent territory to the British, retaining only the capital and a small tract of country around, which also at last lapsed to the Government in 1855, on the death of Rájá Sivají, son of Rájá Sharabhojí, without legitimate male issue.

Tanjore is the headquarters of the Collector, the Judge, and the other departments of District administration. The municipal income averages £4200 a year; rate of taxation, 7¼d. per head of population.

As the capital of one of the greatest of the ancient Hindu dynasties of Southern India, and in all ages one of the chief political, literary, and religious centres of the south, the city of Tanjore is full of interesting associations. Its monuments of Hindu art and early civilisation are of the first importance. The great temple is known throughout the world. Fergusson, in his *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture* (1876), says of it: 'The great pagoda was commenced on a well-defined and stately plan, which was persevered in till completion. . . . It consists of two courts, one a square of about 250 feet, originally devoted to minor shrines and residences; but when the temple was fortified by the French in 1777, it was converted into an arsenal, and has not been reappropriated to sacred purposes. The temple itself stands in a courtyard extremely well proportioned to receive it, being about 500 feet long by half that in width, the distance between the gateway and the temple being broken by the shrine of the bull Nandi, which is sufficiently important for its purpose, but not so much so as to interfere with the effect of the great *vimana*, which stands near the inner end of the court. The perpendicular part of its base measures 82 feet square, and is two storeys in height, of simple outline, but sufficiently relieved by niches and pilasters. Above this the pyramid rises in thirteen storeys to the summit, which is crowned by a dome said to consist of a single stone, and reaching a height of 190 feet.

The porch in front is kept low, and the tower dominates over the *gopuras* and surrounding objects in a manner that imparts great dignity to the whole composition.

'Besides the great temple and the Nandi porch, there are several other smaller shrines in the enclosure, one of which, dedicated to Subramanya, a son of Siva, is as exquisite a piece of decorative architecture as is to be found in the south of India, and though small, almost divides our admiration with the temple itself. It is built behind an older shrine, which may be coeval with the great temple as originally designed. A peculiarity of the temple is that all the sculptures on the *gopuras* belong to the religion of Vishnu, while everything in the courtyard is dedicated to the worship of Siva. At first I felt inclined to think it had been erected wholly in honour of the first-named divinity, but am now more disposed to the belief that it is only an instance of the extreme tolerance that prevailed at the age at which it was erected, before these religions became antagonistic. Its date is unknown. Mr. Norman, a competent authority, in the text accompanying Tripe's photographs, says it was erected by Kadu Vettiya Soran, or Cholan, a king reigning at Conjeveram in the beginning of the 14th century. The Subramanya is certainly one century, probably two centuries, more modern. The bull itself is also inferior in design, and therefore more modern than those at Halebid, which belong probably to the 13th century, and the architecture of the shrine cannot be carried back beyond the 15th century. It may even be considerably more modern.'

The fort, which is now almost dismantled, covers a large area. Within it is the chief part of the native town, and the palace, which is still occupied by the family of the last Rájá. There are some fine halls in the palace, which also contains the large and valuable library that belonged to the Rájá, with some unique manuscripts catalogued by Dr. Burnell of the Madras Civil Service.

Tanjore is famous for its artistic manufactures, including silk carpets, jewellery, *répoussé* work, copper wares, and curious models in pith and other materials. The South Indian Railway connects Tanjore with NEGAPATAM (its seaport) on the east, and Trichinopoli on the west. In the year 1875, the railway station received or despatched 346,307 passengers and 23,717 tons of goods, and earned a revenue of £19,157.

Tánk.—*Tahsíl*, and formerly a semi-independent State, in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab; till lately under the partial management of a Nawáb. Lies between 32° and 32° 25′ N. lat., and between 70° 7′ and 70° 41′ E. long.; occupying the north-western corner of the District, at the foot of the Suláimán Hills. Area, 485 square miles; pop. (1868), 30,849 persons, or 63 per square mile; number of villages, 109. The principality of Tánk consists of a naturally dry and

uninviting plain, intersected at right angles to its length by ravines sloping in the direction of the Indus. By assiduous cultivation, however, it has acquired an aspect of prosperity and greenness which distinguish it strongly from the neighbouring *tahsíl* of Koláchi. Low ranges of stony hills here and there project into the plain from the Suláimán system. The country long lay uninhabited, there being little to tempt any settlers in so barren a tract; but it was finally occupied by Pathán tribes from the western hills. The Nawábs of Tánk belong to the Kati Khel section of the Daulat Khel clan, the most powerful of the original settlers, who gradually expelled all the rest. The present Nawáb, Sháh Nawáz Khán, is said to be 20th in descent from Daulat Khán, eponym of the tribe. His family first assumed the tribal headship in the person of Katál Khán, great-grandfather of Sháh Nawáz. His son, Sarwar Khán, a most remarkable man, devoted himself throughout a long reign to the amelioration of his territory and his tribesmen. Under his sway, the Daulat Khel changed from a pastoral to a cultivating people; and they still revere his memory, making his acts and laws the standard of excellence in government. Sarwar Khán towards the end of his life found it necessary to tender his submission to the Síkhs, after their occupation of Derá Ismáil Khán; and his tribute was fixed at £300 per annum. Three years later, Ranjít Sinh visited the Deraját in person, and raised the tribute to £6000. Sarwar Khán paid the stipulated sum as long as he lived; but his son and successor, Aladád Khán, permitted it to fall into arrears, and finally fled to the hills, where he found a refuge among the Wazíri Patháns. Tánk was then given in *jágír* to Náo Nihal Sinh; but Aladád kept up such a constant guerilla warfare from the hills that the Síkh grantee at last threw up his possession in disgust. Málik Fateh Khán Tiwána then for a time seized on the State, and after his final defeat by Daulat Rái (*see* DERA ISMAIL KHAN DISTRICT and TIWANA), it was made over to three dependants of the Nawábs of Derá; Sháh Nawáz Khán, the son of Aladád (who had died meanwhile) being left a beggar. In 1846, however, the exiled prince accidentally attached himself to Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who procured his appointment by the Lahore *darbár* to the governorship of Tánk. After the annexation of the Punjab, the British Government confirmed him in that post, and he thenceforward enjoyed a semi-independent position, holding a portion of the revenues, and entrusted with the entire internal administration, as well as with the protection of the border. The results, however, proved unsatisfactory, both as regards the peace of the frontier and the conduct of the administration. A scheme was accordingly introduced for remodelling the relations of the State. The Nawáb's income was increased, but he was deprived of all sovereign powers, retaining only those of an honorary magistrate.

Tánk has thus become an ordinary *tahsíl* of Derá Ismáil Khán District, under the charge of the local authorities.

Tánk.—Town in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the *tahsíl;* formerly capital of a semi-independent principality. Situated in lat. 32° 14′ N., and long. 70° 25′ E., on the left bank of a ravine issuing from the Tánk Záru Pass, 42 miles north-west of Derá Ismáil Khán town. Pop. (1868), 2800. Founded by Katál Khán, first Nawáb of Tánk. Mud wall surrounds the town, 12 feet in height, and 7 feet thick, with numerous towers and 2 or 3 gates, but in bad repair. Fort, now in ruins, an enormous pile of mud about 250 yards square; walls, faced with brick, enclose a citadel 40 feet high. Fifteen mosques, court-house, Nawáb's offices and residence, dispensary, and school-house. Water said to be impure, and dangerous for strangers. Considerable trade in iron between the Wazíris and the people of Tánk, when good terms subsist between them. Sir Henry Durand, Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, lost his life at this town in 1870, being thrown from his elephant by the howdah striking against the top of a gateway. He was buried at Derá Ismáil Khán.

Tankári.—Port in Broach District, Bombay, in lat. 21° 59′ 45″ N., and long. 72° 42′ 30″ E.; situated on the east side of a small creek, which for about 5 miles strikes northwards from the right bank of the Dhádhar, about 7 miles from the mouth of that river. This creek is not navigable, even by small country craft, except at high tide; but notwithstanding, Tankári was formerly the port for a considerable tract of country, receiving the opium of Málwá as well as the cotton and grain of Jambusar and Amod. Trade has to a large extent left Tankári, since the opening of the B. B. and C. I. Railway; the returns for 1874-75 still show, however, a total value of exports amounting to £135,790, and of imports £28,098.

Tanna.—District and town, Bombay.—*See* THANA.

Tanna.—An old fort on the Húglí, opposite Fort Alígarh in Garden Reach, a suburb of Calcutta. Taken by Clive on the recapture of Calcutta, 30th December 1756.

Tánúr.—Seaport in Malabar District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 58′ N., and long. 75° 56′ E., at the mouth of a small river falling into the Arabian Sea. Thornton gives the following notice of the place:—'In the year 1782, the British army, under the command of Colonel Humberstone, acting against the forces of Haidar Alí, took refuge here from a storm of five days' continuance, which dispersed the boats, spoiled the provisions, and damaged the ammunition of the expedition. It was formerly a prosperous place, but is now much decayed. Distance from Calicut, south-east, 22 miles; Mangalore, 170; Bombay, 546.'

Tapasí.—A coal-mine in the RANIGANJ coal-field, Bardwán District, Bengal. The colliery was first opened in 1848; but the shaft then worked being destroyed by fire in 1863, another was opened in that year. Out-turn of coal in 1866, 206,154 *maunds;* thickness of seam, 24 feet. An analysis of Tapasí coal gave the following results:—Fixed carbon, 49·20 to 53·75 per cent.; volatile matter, 31·50 to 35·40 per cent.; ash, 8·50 to 14·75 per cent.

Tappa.—Petty State in Central India, under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency; consisting of 12 villages in the Gwalior *parganá* of Sonkach, which were granted in 1822 by Mahárájá Dáolat Ráo Sindhia to Thákur Rúp Sinh, Girasia of Tappa. The name of the present chief is Takht Sinh.

Tappa Asl.—*Parganá* in Partábgarh District, Oudh. Area, 67 square miles, of which 32 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 38,286, namely, 37,183 Hindus and 1103 Muhammadans. Number of villages or townships, 97; of which 83 belong to the Bachgotis, whose original home in Oudh lies a few miles farther south, in Patti *parganá*, and only 7 are owned by Bílkhar Kshattriyas, the predecessors of the Bachgotis as lords of the soil. With the exception of one, all the villages are held in *zamíndári* tenure. Government land revenue, £4256, or 2s. 6⅞d. per arable acre.

Tappal.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the old high bank of the Jumna (which now flows 4 miles to the west), in lat. 28° 2′ 25″ N., and long. 77° 36′ 55″ E., 32 miles north-west of Alígarh town. Pop. (1872), 6023, consisting of 4057 Hindus and 1966 Muhammadans. Decaying town, with no trade; *bázár* of a few poor-looking shops; unmetalled sandy roads; ruinous and neglected buildings. Once a place of some note: remains of a large fort, said to be 800 years old; ruins of another fort, formerly belonging to Begam Samru. Residence of a *tahsíldár* in early days of British rule; since transferred to Khair. School, police station, post office.

END OF VOLUME VIII.

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